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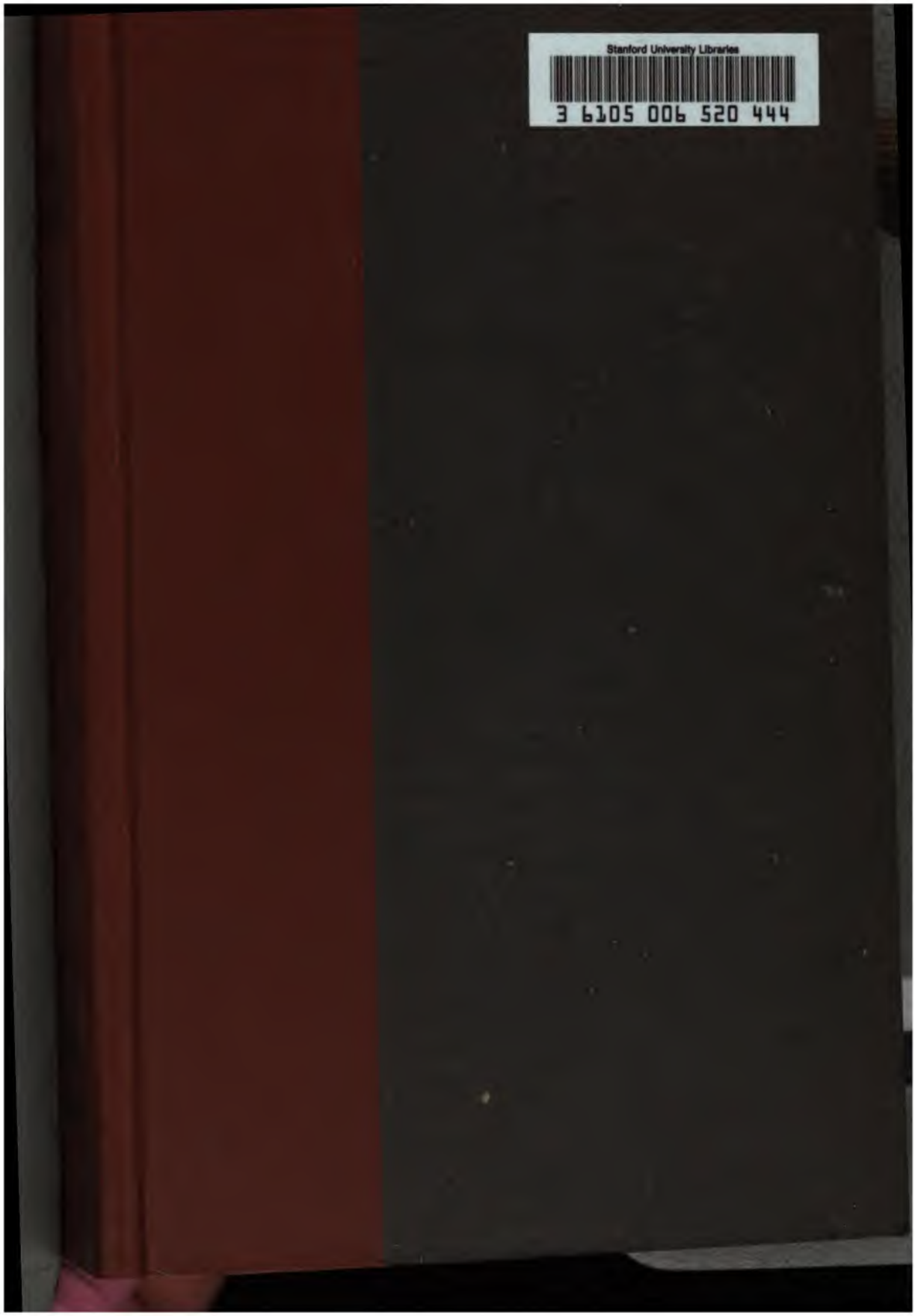
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E. E. WHITE, EDITOR.

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NEEDS OF THE OHIO SCHOOL SYSTEM.

[From the forthcoming report of Hon. T. W. HARVEY, State Commissioner of Common Schools of Ohio.]

NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

Ample provision for an adequate supply of competent, trained teachers is essential to completeness and efficiency in any school system. To provide for the erection of school-houses and for keeping schools in session a given number of weeks each year, is not enough. The employment of skillful, intelligent, conscientious teachers in school work is the best and most satisfactory assurance we can have that our children are being educated aright. Educational interests prosper when incompetency and inefficiency are not tolerated in the school-room, and when school authorities heed the wise maxim of the political economist, "No man can afford to hire poor labor."

Success in teaching depends largely upon practice in the use and application of methods. One may know *what* to teach, and yet not know *how* to teach. A good scholar may be a poor teacher; for scholastic attainments avail not with those who do not or can not use method in instruction. The naturally unmethodical are out of place in the school-room, and rarely or never become successful teachers. Those who do not possess the tact and skill requisite for complete success, may possibly acquire both by patient study and diligent practice in well-conducted professional training schools.

The experience of the past has taught us that we ought not to depend upon schools established and conducted as private enterprises for this professional or normal training. We must employ other agencies than these, or there will be no permanent sources of supply for the constantly increasing demand for thoroughly trained teachers. The wants and needs of our public schools imperatively demand that a system of normal instruction, of whose advantages every teacher may readily avail himself, should at once be established by the State, and its administration entrusted to a board of managers.

It may be asked, "Has not the State already made some provision for the professional training of teachers?" Let the school laws now in force furnish an answer. By the act of February 8, 1847, County Commissioners are authorized, but not required, to appropriate from the county treasury, on certain specified conditions, a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars each year, for the support of teachers' institutes. The act of March 14, 1853, as amended March 18, 1864, and March 28, 1865, provides that every applicant for a teacher's certificate must pay fifty cents for the privilege of being examined. The fund raised in this manner is paid into the county treasury, and called the "Teachers' Institute Fund." One third of this poll-tax upon teachers may be used in defraying the necessary traveling expenses of County Examiners; the remainder is set apart to pay the salaries of institute lecturers and instructors. This is all the provision made by Ohio for normal instruction. Is it liberal and generous, or is it parsimonious in the extreme?

In striking contrast with our own State, New York expended within the year ending September 30, 1870, for normal schools, $128,723 59; for teachers' institutes, $15,345: Massachusetts, in 1870, expended $48,500 for normal schools, and $2,800 for teachers' institutes: Minnesota, $22,500 in sustaining three normal schools: Pennsylvania, for normal schools, about $30,000; for teachers' institutes, $11,213 92: Illinois, $33,656 57, in 1869, for her State Normal University, and another normal school, with like liberal endowment, is soon to be opened.

Though some of these States have made grave and costly mistakes, there is no influential opposition to normal instruction in any one of them. Its benefits are so great and so manifest as to disarm opposition. Ohio can now profit by their experience, and establish a system which, it is confidenly believed,

will be more thorough, more efficient, and less liable to serious objection, than any now in existence.

The value of the agencies we may use for this purpose, can be estimated from the good results which have heretofore attended the employment of similar agencies independent of State patronage. With no means except the institute fund, the teachers of many counties have successfully sustained teachers' institutes a series of years, obtaining a small amount of normal instruction, it is true, but very valuable to the inexperienced. The kind and amount of instruction given in them, the length of their sessions, the details of their management and conduct, have varied much in different localities; but their exercises have usually been very interesting and instructive, and their influence beneficial in a marked degree.

The impossibility of securing the services of acceptable or experienced instructors has heretofore prevented the holding of institutes in some counties. Inadequate as they seem to be, however, they are the only available means we have for the dissemination of correct views concerning the end, aim, and scope of education, as well as for instruction in the details of school management and the administration of school affairs. They can not be dispensed with without serious detriment to the State's most vital interest. They should be fostered, encouraged, and sustained by ttate patronage.

An Institute Corps.—I would, therefore, respectfully recommend to the General Assembly the organization and appointment of an *Institute Corps*, consisting of not less than four experienced, practical teachers, whose sole business shall be the organization and management of district and county institutes.

District Institutes.—A district institute should be held annually in each judicial district. The length of its session should not be less than four weeks. The best teachers in the district should assist the institute corps in conducting its exercises. During the session opportunity should be furnished for reviews of the branches taught in the common schools, and for instruction in and practice of the methods used by those most successful in teaching them. These institutes will be attended by the most intelligent teachers in the district, who will go thence as educational missionaries. As provision will be made for a somewhat extended course of instruction in methods, they will take the place of the expensive district and county normal schools

of other States. They will be centers toward which the educational talent of the district will gravitate.

County Institutes.—County institutes, as heretofore, will be attended by inexperienced teachers, mostly, many of whom have enjoyed but few educational advantages—frequently no other than those furnished by the common school—and who do not intend to follow teaching as a permanent employment. The methods elucidated and recommended in them should be such as young teachers can use in unclassified country schools, not those which can be successfully employed only in schools thoroughly graded, or where regular and punctual attendance is the rule and not the exception.

To secure desirable results, and to guard against the introduction of inappropriate topics for discussion, the instruction given should be of an elementary character, and the programme of exercises arranged by men of long and successful experience. Those who conduct them can be trained for the work by the institute corps in the district institutes.

Normal Schools.—There are many teachers who desire to fit themselves thoroughly for usefulness in their profession. They take so much pleasure in teaching that they intend to make it the business of a life time. The State can not afford to lose the services of such as these. Every facility for acquiring the desired training should be ungrudgingly furnished them. Hence the policy and necessity of establishing one or more normal schools, to be sustained as state institutions. The instruction given in district and county institutes will be limited—necessarily so. To a certain extent it must be fragmentary, if not superficial. A normal school will enable the ambitious and persevering to secure thorough, systematic training It should be a purely professional school. Academic instruction, except such as may be incidentally given in the illustration of methods, should be dispensed with. that the science of education and the art of teaching may receive exclusive attention.

There should be two courses of study in this institution—an elementary and an advanced course. The elementary course should provide for instruction in the best methods of teaching the common branches of an English education, and in the philosophy upon which such methods are founded; for practice in the use of methods; for instruction in the details of school classification and management, in edecational history and legislation, and in the duties, responsibilities, and legal requirements of

teachers, patrons, and school officers. The advanced course should be thorough and complete, providing for instruction in all matters relating to pedagogics. Those who finish it should be familiar with the development and practical working of educational systems wherever established; should be able to criticise text-books intelligently, and to teach others how to supplement them, or to supply their deficiencies, with appropriate oral instruction; should be acquainted with school architecture, that under their direction school-houses may hereafter be erected, convenient in arrangement and economical in construction; in brief, should be thoroughly prepared to perform all the duties required of a first-class teacher or superintendent. The labors of such as these will soon lift our teachers out of the "ruts of routine," and their advice give tone and direction to educational effort throughout the State.

A large expenditure of money will not be required to sustain this system of normal instruction. An appropriation of $30,000 annually, in addition to the "Teachers' Institute Fund," will be sufficient.

Supervision.

In all business enterprises, supervision is acknowledged to be an essential condition of success. A manufacturing or commercial firm which neglects to employ this safeguard, invites failure and insures bankruptcy. It economizes motive power, adapts means to ends, and protects against fraud and deception.

The graded, thoroughly classified, and well taught schools of our cities, towns, and villages, depend for efficient guidance and management upon the energy, intelligence, and provident foresight of their superintendents. Their well-deserved reputation is mainly the product of the same agencies. Many of our country schools are badly managed, much of our educational fund is squandered or fails to be productive of good results, because there is no supervisory head in each county to see that school work of all kinds is well done. Though local directors are required by law to visit the schools in their sub-districts twice each term, that duty is rarely performed. Practically our country schools are without supervision. Each teacher does much as he pleases, well knowing that no intelligent overseer will ever invade the privacy of his school-room, to direct or criticise the work done there. Its merits or demerits will never be heralded forth in a superintendent's report. The only thing he has to fear is the ill-will of some influential, fault-finding patron; his

only incentive to do honest, thorough work, is the approval of his conscience or a desire to excel in his vocation—to be a "good schoolmaster."

Unfortunately for their pupils, teachers are not all conscientious, and equally so for their patrons, the machinery of a school-room is not self-moving. Like most people, teachers need watching, advice, admonition, kind reproof, and words of cheer; and in the school room as in the work-shop, on the farm, or in the business-house, supervision is a motor of wondrous power. There being no one in each county to organize, counsel, and direct, our country schools are frequently a chaos of misapplied good purposes, wasteways of unused or misdirected energies. While our cities and towns have been making rapid progress in all that concerns education, our rural districts have failed to keep pace with them, and in some localities have actually retrograded.

This ought not so to be. The agricultural population of a State is its bone and sinew. Every consideration of enlightened state policy requires that it be educated up to the standard demanded by the spirit of the times. Our common schools, if taught by trained teachers whose efforts are directed by competent, authoritative supervision, would soon become the pride and boast of our people—living evidences of their spirit and enterprise, hopeful promises of future progress and prosperity. It is suicidal longer to deprive them of a potent means for improvement.

As in the past, so for many years to come, these schools must be taught by the young and inexperienced. The character of the rising generation will be molded and fashioned by "prentice hands." Young men with no definite plans for the future, young ladies to whom no other employment offers equal attractions or larger compensation, will spend a few months each year in well-meant and often successful endeavors to teach our children the rudiments of knowledge; and each year one-third of their number will give place to new comers. The most successful of these will be sought out and employed by the boards of education of our graded schools. Is it wise to entrust the vital interests of education to teachers almost as immature in years and judgment as their pupils, without providing some means whereby their efforts may be aided, tested, controlled, and encouraged? Can we reasonably expect to derive much real benefit from agencies so feeble, employed in a manner which would be ruin-

ous or disastrous in any business enterprise? The truth is, many of the complaints made against our common schools for their lack of efficiency and thoroughness, are but protests against our inefficient system of school administration. Apply to their management the common sense rules which insure success in ordinary business concerns, and most of the causes for complaint will soon be removed.

In many counties, the introduction of new industries or the disuse of old ones has drawn a portion of the population from the country into the towns and villages. School houses, once crowded to their utmost capacity, are now almost deserted. In such localities, good schools are not sustained or permanent teachers employed. A consolidation of sub-districts, or a re-districting of many townships, seems now to be very desirable, if not an absolute necessity. This should not be done hastily. We love our homes—we cherish the memories which cluster around the place where we received our earliest training. Though seminary or college may claim us, the common school is our *alma mater*—the old school house an object of the tenderest regard. Its removal to a new locality, or the enlargement of sub-district limits, involves the destruction of old landmarks and the formation of new friendships and new associations.

The opposition which almost every attempt at consolidation encounters, even from those who acknowledge its necessity, should not, therefore, surprise us. If the views of its advocates ever become popular, they must be made so through the earnest endeavors of men known and honored for their integrity and sterling worth, who can present them in so strong a light that all will heed their force, and learn to look forward into the future rather than backward upon the past. A county superintendent who knows the geography of his county, and has made the economy of its schools a study, can do a great deal toward securing this much to be desired result—and the money saved by this change in sub-district boundaries will more than pay his salary.

A county on the Western Reserve was once re-districted, on paper, by a gentleman familiar with its physical features, its highways, and the enumeration returns of each township and sub-district. Estimating that the sale of the old school-house sites would furnish ample means for the purchase of the necessary new ones, as well as defray the expense of the removal and

repair of the old school houses, he found that more than $8000 might be saved annually by consolidation and re-districting. As an agency for this purpose alone supervision will pay.

County superintendency is not recommended, however, unless liberal provision shall be made to pay the salaries of those who are to perform its official duties. A county superintendent should be a *live* man—his fitness for the position not determined by his unfitness for any other employment. He should not be a failure in the pulpit or at the bar, a doctor without patients, or a politician transformed into a school official because he is in the way of some aspirant to some other office. He should be a man of integrity, of high moral and social standing, of mature judgment, of experience in the practical working of school systems, a representative man, able to lead and command, and not liable to make doubtful experiments. He should be of the people, knowing their thoughts and the motives by which they are actuated, tolerant of whim and caprice, patient with the timid and unwisely conservative, having faith in God and His providence, and moved to do good deeds by an ardent love for the human race. Such men should be found in every county. Their services can not be had for the asking. Is it not economy to pay them their price? Under their lead and direction our common schools will prosper, and the smouldering embers of educational feeling and enthusiasm be once more fanned into a flame.

Supervision has ceased to be an experiment. Though necessarily attended with expense, it is now the settled policy of the states that have once adopted it. Says the Hon. H. B. Wilson, of Minnesota, "Long experience in those states where the county superintendency system has been tested, as well as our own, proves beyond controversy the efficiency of this plan of school management; and when the entire time of this officer is devoted to school supervision, its efficiency is best displayed, and the office best sustained." Says the Hon. Newton Bateman, of Illinois, "I proclaim again, that county supervision is the right arm of our school system, its strongest living element of power; the most closely identified with its future progress and development. No more disastrous blow could be aimed at the system, than one directed at the life of the superintendency."

Twenty-one states and territories have already made supervision a prominent feature in their school systems—may we not confidently trust that Ohio will soon follow their example.

The Township System.

The act of March 14, 1853, provides that "each and every organized township in the State shall compose but one school district for all purposes connected with the general interests of education in the township, and shall be confided to the management and control of a board of education; and the several school districts, or fractional parts thereof, which now are, or may hereafter be established in the several organized townships of the State, shall be regarded as sub-districts, and be confided to the management and control of local directors."

By the provisions of this act, township boards are bodies politic and corporate in law, and are invested with the title, care, and custody of all school property belonging to the school district, or township. They have exclusive control over the central or high schools of their several townships; prescribe rules for all the sub-district schools; may appoint one of their members manager of the schools of the township in which he resides, and allow him a reasonable salary for his services; and by act of March 31, 1871, are authorized and required to determine the text-books to be used and the studies to be pursued in the schools under their control. They fix the boundaries of the sub-districts, and locate school-house sites. They make estimates of the amount of money required to build and repair school houses, pay contingent expenses, etc., and to continue the schools in session six months each year. They apportion school moneys of all kinds among the sub-districts, and are required to make an annual report of certain specified particulars to the county auditor.

Local directors control and direct the educational interests and affairs of the sub-districts. They take the enumeration of children of school age; employ and dismiss teachers; make contracts for building, repairing, or furnishing school houses, for providing fuel, for purchasing school-house sites or renting school rooms, and make all necessary provisions for the convenience and prosperity of the sub-district schools. Practically, the management of our country schools and the disbursement of all school moneys for their support are entrusted to them.

The practical working of this system is far different from what its authors intended or anticipated. That numberless complications must necessarily occur, may be readily infered from the fact that powers and duties are divided between township and local boards, which should belong exclusively to either the one or

the other to insure any effective adjustment of means to ends. For instance, the township board is required to keep the schools of the township in session six months each year, and appor tions the fund raised by local tax for that purpose among the sub-districts, but has no control over its disbursement—the local directors hire the teachers, paying them such wages as they think best or most prudent. The township board locates a school-house site, and provides money for the building of a school house—the local directors purchase the site, determine the plan of the house, and make contracts for its erection. The township board makes the rules and regulations for the purchase of fuel and for the reparing or furnishing of a school house—the local directors make all contracts for such purchases, repairs, and furniture. Need we be surprised that a system so cumbrous and complicated is found to be a fruitful source of neglect, perplexity, misunderstanding, and litigation?

It is recommended that two of these local directors be dispensed with; that the management and control of all the schools in each township be entrusted to a township board composed of one member from each sub-district; that this board be invested with the title, care, and custody of all school property, locate and purchase all school-house sites, determine the plans of all school-houses and make contracts for their erection, apportion all public moneys, except those distributed *per capita*, among the sub-districts, and employ and pay all teachers,—reserving, however, to each local director the right to nominate the teacher or teachers for his sub-district.

It is believed that this change in the administration of school affairs will be attended with marked beneficial results. All that is really valuable in the sub-district plan will be retained. The number of local directors will be reduced, but each sub-district will have the same representation and influence in the township board that it now has. The public funds will be more equitably apportioned among the sub-districts than they now are, and contracts will cease to be made by parties not directly responsibe for their fulfillment. The township board being responsible for the right management of all the schools in the district, will be disposed to use much caution and deliberation in the selection and employment of teachers. A nearer approach to a desirable uniformity of instruction and equality of educational advantages will be made throughout the township, the county, the State, than is now possible. The transition from the old

system to the new will be an easy one, for it involves no great or radical changes. The number of local directors in each sub-district will be reduced from three to one, and certain powers, neither vital nor important to local interests, will be transferred from them to the township board organized precisely as it now is. A riddance will be made of friction and dead weight, and our school system made compact and efficient.

SCHOOL PROGRESS IN EUROPE.

BY B. G. NORTHROP, CONNECTICUT.

The subject of public instruction is now awakening thought and discussion throughout Europe to an unprecedented extent. The American and Franco-Prussian wars have demonstrated the value of free public schools, and taught the people as well as the public men of Europe that general education is essential to the preservation and prosperity of States, inasmuch as it is the source of thrift in peace and power in war, the cheapest defense of any nation, and the wisest kind of police, for it seeks the prevention rather than the punishment of crime. Rulers, too, are learning that the wealth of a State consists as much in its intellectual measures as in its physical force; that education tends to order, economy and virtue, while ignorance means waste and weakness, if not pauperism and vice.

Turkey and Spain, countries hitherto backward in educational facilities, are, it appears, now maturing systems of public schools, free to the children of all classes, the poor as well as the rich. Russia has recently organized over 15,000 public schools. Sweden and Norway have, also, made marked educational progress. By far the most prominent and perplexing question of discussion in England during the last year has been that of universal education. In this matter, hitherto slow and behind the other leading nations of Europe, England is at last moving in earnest.

Nowhere on the Continent has the educational progress made during the past year been so remarkable as in Rome, where a system of free public schools is now in operation. Though unknown in the Eternal City prior to the unification of Italy, in

less than one month after the entrance of the National Government into Rome, public schools were organized. The attendance, at first small, has steadily increased, and now nearly 7,000 children are being educated there. The sympathies of the masses are already enlisted. Considering the difficulties encountered, the first year's trial has been a great success. The results have largely disarmed opposition, and converted many opponents into friends. The first anniversary of the Plébiscite, (October 2) was celebrated by a large school exhibition, which produced a great sensation, and was attended by over 6,000 pupils. Many thousands of citizens also crowded the Campidoglio. The exercises of the children were enthusiastically applauded. This demonstration settles the question as to the popularity and permanence of public schools in Rome. Grand as were the old Roman military displays on the Capitoline hill, where conquering Cæsars led their triumphal processions and long trains of captives, it may be doubted whether that classic spot ever witnessed a scene so impressive and significant as was the simple gathering of 6,000 pupils with their striking illustrations of the beneficient agency of public schools. Even England, late in enacting a proper school system, and delaying still in carrying out Mr. Foster's School Bill, on the ground of religious difficulty, might learn a lesson from the promptness and energy displayed by Rome in the face of far greater obstacles and embarrassments.

The regular examinations in the Roman schools have taken place and over 1,500 pupils have been promoted. Their zeal and punctuality have been very gratifying, and have exceeded the most sanguine expectations of the government. The expenses of the last year have been about 204,000 francs. The plans initiated, and the increased attendance assured, involve much larger expenditures for the current year. Though new in Rome, public schools are no novelty in Italy. The statesman, to whom was due the unification of that country and the Mont Cenis tunnel, also aided in organizing an excellent system of Public Instruction for the Sardinians. The Normal and Technical schools, started under the administration of Cavour, have been the most effective agencies in the recent regeneration of Italy, for she is everywhere reviving, and more especially in the northern part, where the people are rapidly progressing. The present condition of Turin and Milan, for example, demonstrate the influence of general and technical education on the indus-

tries and resources of a community. Business is prospering, manufactures are multiplying, and the people are hopeful and jubilant. Public interest and liberality in behalf of education are increasing. Last year Milan spent 734,000 francs for public schools, Florence 741,000, and Turin over 1,000,000. Liberal provision for technical education is made in Milan and Turin. The Polytechnic Institute in Genoa has 35 professors and over 720 students.

Austria is also manifesting a new-born and zealous interest in education. Defeated in war, she now seeks to excel in the arts of peace. Count Beust has left his impress on the educational institutions of his country. The new school houses in Vienna are among the best in Europe.

The school houses on the Continent generally are inferior to those of the United States, many being very old, poorly lighted and ventilated, and often in Italy with no arrangements whatever for heating. The American are far superior to the European schools in the methods of teaching geography and arithmetic; but in the teaching of languages, history, and drawing the best schools of Switzerland and Germany rank higher than those of the United States. What was said in my former communication respecting the attention given to these branches in Switzerland, applies also to Germany. The faculty of language is early developed, and to talk well is held to be a noble art. History is made a prominent and most attractive study. The schools of Austria, Swtizerland, France, and Germany greatly excel in drawing. These countries understand both the practical bearing of drawing and its relation to general culture.

Paris, Nov. 15, 1871.

It is healthful and it is refreshing to turn aside at times from the study of methods of teaching and discipline to the study of those principles that underlie all school teaching and school government. And it is well to remember that what many of us teachers most need, is not a better way of doing this or doing that, but higher aims, a juster estimate of the essential nobleness of our vocation, and a profounder conviction of the stern duty of unceasing self-culture.—*Mass Teacher.*

CASE IN ENGLISH.

BY GEORGE S. ORMSBY, XENIA, OHIO.

In my last article, published in the June number of this Journal, I suggested the following definition of case, viz:

Case is that form or use of the noun or pronoun which indicates the subject of thought, the possessor, or the object of an action or relation. It is, also, the use of a noun or pronoun, independent of any relation to the sentence, or of any governing word.

By the term form, in this definition, is meant the different words, or the different terminations of the same word, which represent the same object or attribute in different relations. The pronouns *he, his,* and *him,* are called different forms of the same pronoun. They may be used in the same sentence, or in different sentences, to represent the same person in different relations, he representing the person as the chief subject of thought, his as the possessor, and him as the object of an action or relation. The nouns William and William's are called different forms of the same noun. Some writers have objected to this use of the term form; still it is regarded as convenient and proper. Now it is affirmed in the definition that these forms of words so far as they indicate the different relations of objects, are cases. Usage has determined that one form of the noun or pronoun shall indicate one relation of the object that it repsents; another form, another relation.

By the term *use,* in the definition, is meant simply the way in which the word is used to indicate relations, not of words, but of things. The term relation would not be especially objectionable. Case would then be a relation of words to indicate a relation of things. But the only relation that one word can sustain to another in the sentence, is that of position; and hence it would be equally proper to call case that position of the noun or pronoun in the sentence, which indicates a certain relation of things. But the term *use* is more comprehensive in its meaning than the term relation or position, as applied to the collection of words in a sentence. Take the sentence, Soldiers march to the front; also, the sentence, Soldiers! march to the front! The relation or position of the words in each of these sentence is the same; but the *use* of the word soldiers in the first sentences indicates the relation of the men to an action represented by the word march. The use of the word soldiers in the second sentence

indicates the relation of the men to a commander. In the first sentence we are told that the soldiers do something. In the second sentence they are commanded to do something. This mode or way of using nouns or pronouns in a sentence or in speech, so as to indicate certain relations of objects or things represented by them, is called *use* in the definition; and this *use* of the noun or pronoun is called case.

It should be borne in mind, in this discussion, that the relation of *words* is one thing, and that the relation of *things* is quite another. If case is a relation, it is a relation of words to indicate a relation of things. But I have shown that the term *use*, in this connection, embraces in its meaning all that is meant by the term relation or position and even more.

The term case originally signified a falling, or leaning from the first state of the word, the name. The first state of the word was the *nomen*, the nominative, the name. It was not strictly a case, because not a departure from itself. The genitive, dative, accusative,, and ablative were departures or fallings from this—were called cases. The vocative, in Latin, was not generally a departure, inasmuch as in addressing a person or thing, the first, or leading form the name or nominative, would be used.

Now these cases were not relations, nor did they indicate relations of words, they were forms of words, which indicated the relation of things. When Cicero spoke to the Roman Senate, his auditors thought not of the relations of words that he used, but of the relations of things which these words in their various forms and and uses indicated. The nominative indicated the agent, the subject of thought, the thing about which something was said or affirmed. The genitive indicated that from which something else proceeded, the origin, and by accommodation, possession. The dative from *dodativus*, to give to, indicated the object to or for which anything is, or is done, and so, also, the accusative, the vocative, the ablative indicated such relations of objects as the names of the case would imply. These cases, of course, denoted other relations of objects than those mentioned. It is not important that they be enumerated. It is sufficient that we have found that this *case*, this *falling*, this *departure* from the nominative, this *change* in the termination of the word, this *form* of the word was to indicate the relations, not of words, but of things.

This truth, appertaining to case in the Latin language, throws

some light upon the same subject in English. It is in perfect accordance with the laws of thought, to make the office of case the same in one language as in another. Indeed the grammarian does not make this. There is something in the language which indicates these relations of things—something in the English that does this, and English grammarians have recognized it, and made a record of the fact which they themselves had no power to change. They may not all have discovered case to be the same thing, but they have with great unanimity affirmed it to perform the same, or nearly the same, office.

Dr. Hart says, "Case distinguishes the relation"—Greene, "Case denotes the relation"—Kerl, "Case shows, &c."—Gould Brown, "Cases distinguish the relations"—Quakenbos, "Case distinguishes the relations."—Prof. Henry N. Day, "Case expresses the relation."

These quotations, from acknowledged standard authority, have been made simply to corroborate what has been said as to the office of what we call case in English. All grammatical authority teaches this, viz: that case is something that *indicates, denotes, shows* something else; and this *something else* which case indicates is a relation—a relation not of words but of things.

And now having ascertained the office of case, we are better prepared to determine *what case is.* Nouns and pronouns are used in the sentence to represent objects. What is there about these words that indicates the relation that these objects sustain to one another or to any given attribute? To a limited extent form will do this. The personal pronoun of the masculine gender, singular number, may represent a particular man; *he, his,* and *him,* may represent the same person; *he* represents him as sustaining the relation of agent; if the corresponding fact of the relation is an action the person represented by *he* is the actor or the endurer of the act. The form *he* indicates this relation, *his* represents the same person in the relation of possessor, and *him* in the relation of an object affected by an action, or related in some manner to some other object previously mentioned, which latter relation is generally indicated by some preposition. The possessive form of the noun, also, indicates the relation of possessor. These forms, so far as they exist in English, as in Latin, are cases, and they perform the same office in the one language that they do in the other.

But form alone will not indicate all the relations that are attributed to case in English. The Latin sentence, *Vulcanus fecit*

arma, may be transposed so as to read *Arma fecit Vulcanus*, but the forms of the words in both indicate the same relation of the objects. *Vulcan* is the agent, and *arms* the object of the action. Translate the words of these sentences in the order in which they occur; the first would read, Vulcan made arms; the second, arms made Vulcan. It is then the position of the word in the English sentence, the *use* of the word, that indicates the proper relation of things. If the things sustain a certain relation to one another, and I wish to indicate this in an English sentence, I must so place the words, so *use* the words, make such a *use* of the words, that they will do this. This *use* of the noun or pronoun, which indicates the relation of things, may, with propriety, be called case. For the first appropriation of this term to indicate this thing, so far as I know, we are indebted to Mr. Harvey, and his error, if he has made one, seems to be in not using the same term in his general definitions that he uses in his particular ones. In his general definitions he says, "Case is the *relation* of a noun or pronoun to other words;" while in the definition of the particular cases, he says, "the nominative, possessive, objective, and the case absolute are *uses* of the noun or pronoun."

A few words respecting the number of cases. I have already stated in a former article that there are four well-defined uses of the noun, and hence four cases. This statement seems to be regarded as true by the majority of English grammarians and standard authors on this subject.

If case is that which indicates the relation of things, the number of cases will depend on the number of classified relations. How many classes of relations are there, which are indicated by case?

Grammarians have made a distinction between subjective relations and objective relations, and hence between subjective and objective terms. The leading object of contemplation is regarded as the subject of thought, and the term representing it is a subjective term. The secondary object of thought—the object of an action or the subsequent object of a relation indicated by a preposition, is thought of and spoken of, not as a subject, but as an object, and the term representing it is an objective term. Added to these two relations, there is that of possession, origin or source. These three relations require three cases. The subjective term is in the nominative case, and the

objective term in the objective case, and the possessive term in the possessive case.

The first use of the noun is as the subject or predicate of a proposition. The subject of a proposition is in the nominative case; it denotes the subject of thought. A noun, used as the predicate of a proposition, frequently a more general term than the subject, is not strictly a subjective term, but it denotes the same object that the subject does, and, for this reason, in all inflected languages, it has the same case-form, and in the English language it is properly in the nominative case. The second use of the noun is to indicate possession and kindred relations. To denote this relation we have the possessive case. The third use of the noun is to indicate an objective relation, An objective term, following a transitive verb or a preposition, is in the objective case.

There is still another use of the noun, which the grammarians are favoring, called the independent case, the case absolute, the nominative independent or nominative absolute. The noun, thus used, denotes a subjective, rather than an objective relation, and hence its case has been called *nominative* independent, etc., —a name by no means objectionable. The idea represented by this term has an intimate relation to the thought represented by the accompanying sentence, but in grammatical construction it is entirely independent of it; it is also independent of any governing word, and, because of this grammatical independence, it may with propriety be said to be in the *independent case.*

Besides these, there is what is called the appositive noun. In inflected languages this noun has the same case-form that the noun has with which it is connected, and in all languages it represents the same object. If, then, this appositive noun is joined to the subject, or to the predicate, it is in the nominative case; if joined to the possessive, objective, or independent noun, it will be in the possessive, objective, or independent case.

I have thus endeavored, as briefly as possible, to answer the two questions; "What is grammatical case?" and "How many cases are there in English?" The views herein expressed may not be correct, but to me they seem, not only philosophical, but entirely in accordance with the spirit of our best grammatical teaching, as represented by the best writers on this subject.

THE INDIVIDUAL PECULIARITIES OF PUPILS.

Complaint is often made that in our schools the native peculiarities of the pupils are not consulted. A common educational treatment is meted to all, and all those of the same grade of attainment are made to pursue the same branches. This is spoken of as if it were a hardship, and as if injustice were thus done to the pupils. It is said that "their originality is not developed, their individuality is not unfolded or perfected." This objection is brought as well against the higher schools as the lower; the whole of modern education is affirmed to be too general, whereas it should be specific.

Is there any just ground for this complaint? Three questions arise here: Do our children and youth differ from each other in their mental characteristics to any such extent as is often asserted? If they do, how are these differences to be ascertained? If existing and known, do they require that the education of each should be adapted to his individual peculiarities?

The existence of these differences is often taken for granted; but it is generally done in vague terms by those who indulge in indiscriminate criticism of existing methods of instruction. That there are some differences will not be denied. Every child, as every man, doubtless differs in some respects from every other. But the mental differences are no greater than the physical. In both cases the difference is in degree rather than in kind. All have the same bodily organs intended for the same functions; and so it is with the mind. The body has its wants, and so has the mind. Nor do we need to know the whole physical history in order to know what the wants are. One healthy child is nourished by the same food as another. The mother of a large family provides the common meal for all. Nor does the hostess ask her guests beforehand what they can eat. Except in cases of disease, real or imaginary, what is good for one is good for another.

All the operations of society presuppose common characteristics and common necessities. The same artisan works for hundreds and thousands of customers. Most of the articles of consumption are produced in large quantities without the smallest knowledge of the individual peculiarities of those who are to purchase and use them. The clergyman preaches to an audience of hundreds or thousands. The same newspaper is read, it may be, by hundreds of thousands. What is true in these is true in education. There are some differences, but every lad has the

common mental faculties which need development. His memory may be stronger or weaker than that of his companion, his imagination more or less vivid, his reasoning powers superior or inferior, but he needs culture and knowledge, and must obtain them in the methods which the most thorough study of the mind has shown to be the best for the purpose.

But even were our youth to differ from each other as widely as is often intimated, how is the fact of the difference to be ascertained? How are teachers to know precisely all the characteristics of his pupil's mind? Do teachers know them with any such definiteness as to enable them to state that this study will do the pupil no good, while that branch will be to him of immense advantage? Do the pupils themselves know their own peculiarities, or do their parents know them? What is the universal practice in our best schools in regard to the admission and classification of pupils? An examination is held to ascertain the pupil's attainments. The teacher informs himself of the pupil's knowledge of what he has already studied, and admits or rejects him accordingly. He does not make a thorough mental diagnosis of the pupil s character, nor does he require of the parent a minute list of all his mental traits, his tastes and his distastes, his likes and his dislikes. If he finds him entirely deficient in any study belonging to the previous course, he does not infer therefrom that the lad has no aptitude for that study, but he reminds him to the lower school to make up the deficiency. Nor do we find teachers, except in the rarest cases, changing pupils from one class to another for any reason save that of preparation or non-preparation.

All this shows that teachers do not profess to have any minute knowledge of the individual mental peculiarities of their pupils. It shows that they do not believe in the existence of the peculiarities to any such extent as to affect the educational process.

A third question remains: Suppose these peculiarities did exist, and suppose they could be definitely ascertained, ought these to determine the character of the education which the child or youth should receive? That is, ought the lad who is fond of mathematics and averse to other branches to devote most of his time to mathematical studies? The question, let it be remembered, is one respecting education, and not one respecting the life work of the man. It would be folly for a man to devote himself to surgery who could not look upon blood without fainting. A man whose mathematical calculations were generally

full of blunders, might know that his mission in the world was not to be an astronomer or teacher of mathematics.

But if a lad can prepare his lessons in arithmetic and algebra in one-half or one-fourth of the time which the rest of his class require, shall he on that account drop his grammar, geography, history, and natural science, for which he has a distaste? No one who understands the constitution of the human mind would advise such a course. The purpose of education is not to strengthen one faculty, or class of faculties, at the expense of the others, but to secure a symmetrical development. All admit this; and yet every now and then we hear these wholesale charges against our schools and colleges for neglecting the individuality of the pupil, and reducing everything to a dead uniformity, The bed of Procrustes is usually wheeled out on such occasions to give intensity to the charge.

If the ideas of such reformers should be carried out, it would destroy the chief excellence of our schools—their classifications. Every college and every school that is worthy of the name classifies its pupils for instruction. The teacher in this way instructs a class with no more labor than would be necessary for a single pupil. Hence the method is economical. It is efficient as well as economical, for the pupil probably makes more progress when a member of a class than when taught by himself.

Instruction will continue to be given in classes, notwithstanding the complaints that thereby originality is repressed and individuality neglected. The wise teacher will group his pupils into classes according to their attainment, but at the same time he will study their individual characters and temperaments. He will seek to obtain as complete a personal knowledge as possible of each one whom he instructs, not that he may separate him from his associates, but that he may be able to present to him the most efficient motives, and render his instructions and his whole intercourse of the highest benefit. This personal knowledge of the pupil every teacher should seek. With great classes it is, of course, impossible. And hence a member of a class of moderate size will receive more benefit than a member of a very large class. There is much talk of great universities, as if the advantage to the student was in proportion to the size of the class. The reverse is true, and wise parents are coming to see that their sons for their intellectual advancement as well as their moral progress are the best off in institutions whose classes are not so large that the teacher can not become well acquainted with every member.

I. W. A.

NOTE ON A RECENT DETERMINATION OF LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

During the months of September and October of this year, Mr. G. W. Dean, of the United States Coast Survey, was engaged in the determination of the latitude and longitude of a point in the yard of the State House at the Capital of Ohio. The approximate results of this work, which he has kindly communicated to the writer, may be of interest to many teachers in the State and are here given, preceded by a brief notice of the methods used. For measurement of latitudes, the instrument in use here was what is known as the Zenith Telescope. The method which is due, originally, to Captain Talcott, of U. S. Corps of Engineers, consists in the measurement of the small difference of zenith distance of two stars crossing the meridian on opposite sides of the zenith, at nearly the same altitude and within twenty minutes of each other in time. Its accuracy lies in the substitution of micrometric measurement of small arcs, for the estimation of larger ones on the graduated circle. The latitude of a place is the declination of its zenith; and it is easy to see that this is equal to one half of the sum of the declination of the stars plus one half of the difference of their zenith distances. This is the formula used.

To find longitude is, of course, only to find the difference of time. For this purpose one of the large transit instruments belonging to the Coast Survey was firmly placed upon a stone pier and used for the determination of local time. We were then thrown in complete telegraphic connection with the Observatory at Harvard University and on a number of nights when the weather was favorable, clock signals were exchanged and recorded at both places. In the results given below these observations are reduced to longitude from Washington, and I have also added the longitude from Greenwich reduced from observations made in 1866 by Messrs. B. A. Gould and G. W. Dean, by means of a series of signals through the Atlantic Cable. I also include the results of magnetic observations.

Longitude—West from Washington	5° 56′ 30″
Longitude—West from Greenwich	82° 59′ 37″
Latitude—North	39° 57′ 40″
Declination of Magnetic needle—East	1° 20′
Dip.—of Magnetic needle	71° 13′

T. C. MENDENHALL.

P. S.—On the same day on which the above note was furnished

I received a call from Prof. J. E. Hilgard, assistant in charge of the Coast Survey at Washington, D. C. He came to Columbus for the purpose of making some instrumental comparisons upon the same spot, lately occupied by the Coast Survey party. In conversation with him I referred to the fact that the magnetic variation as given above was not just what we expected at this point. He at once suggested that the great Artesian Well, which is in the State House yard, distant from the magnetic station about forty paces, might probably have affected the result. Upon this suggestion we at once proceeded to the spot, and were surprised to find the prediction verified to a most remarkable degree. At one station, about twenty-five paces from the well, the variation was near 1°, while at another, about twenty paces on the other side, the position of the needle had changed about 5°! In fact this long neglected well, more than two thousand feet deep, being piped with iron, has been converted into a great magnet, with its South pole at the top, and has therefore materially diminished the value of the observations taken here to determine the magnetic elements. Some subsequent observations, made by Prof. Hilgard while here, at a point free from any similar disturbance, indicate that 1° 20′ is not far from the true magnetic declination. A party of Coast Survey Observers have to-day pitched their tent over the southern extremity of the meridian line, which is too distant from the Artesian Well to be under its influence, and will doubtless soon give us a reliable set of magnetic elements.

Columbus, O., Dec. 13, 1871. T. C. M.

ON SIGNS.

In the December number of this journal, F. H. Tuft, in an article entitled "*Arithmetical* Signs", appeals to the science of algebra in order to dispute my interpretation of signs, given in a brief note in the October number. I had, of course, well considered the expression $a \div ab$ before accepting the interpretation which I gave. We continually look upon ab as an expression quite different from $a \times b$. I was led to my rule for interpreting arithmetical expressions containing the signs $+ \; - \; \times \; \div$ by a careful consideration of the absurdities and difficulties of any other. Let us examine, a little, Mr. Tuft's proposed rule, which is that "the sign of multiplication should have precedence, that is, the operation indicated by it should be performed first, next comes division, then addition and subtraction."

By this rule, $48 \div 6 \times 2 \div 3 \times 9 \times 4 \div 5$ is precisely the same as $48 \div 6 \times 2 \times 3 \times 9 \times 4 \times 5$; also, $72 \div 3 \times 4 \div 6$ is the same as $72 \div 3 \times 4 \times 6$. In short, this rule asserts that, in any expression made up of numbers connected by the signs $\times$ and $\div$, after the first sign of division, the result is the same, *it matters not what the remaining signs are.*

Obviously the method of interpretation which I proposed involves no such absurdity; it is the most natural method; the most readily understood and applied; in it divisors are considered as fractional multipliers, and the order of the terms may be changed in any manner without altering the result.

T. C. M.

AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM.

The common school system of the United States is, among all American institutions, the one most generally respected and approved. It differs from some other equally general and equally successful systems in the utter absence of centralization, which is one of its most remarkable characteristics. It differs from many other American institutions in the efficiency and purity of its administration, in the general absence of jobbery, and of bad appointments and unjustifiable removals prompted by motives of political party; and while almost every other part of the political system of the country has provoked the severest comments of Americans themselves, and is considered by the best informed and thoughtful among them as implying rather a reproach to democracy than an evidence of its successful working, no voice has ever been raised against the common schools. All Americans are justly proud of them; nearly all prove their confidence in them by the strongest of all tests—that of sending their children to receive the earlier part of their education therein. They are the objects to which every traveler's attention is invited, and on which the affection and interest of the people are unflaggingly and unfailingly fixed. It must be remembered that, similar, if not identical, as the system is throughout the greater part of the Union, it is a matter with which the Federal Government has no concern, but which is entirely within the jurisdiction of the several States. * * * The system had its origin in New England, and did not find its way into the Empire State until it had been tried and proved in Connecticut and elsewhere.—*London Saturday Review.*

Editorial Department.

—— Mr. Ormsby's concluding paper on "Case in English" was received before the issue of our December number, and hence was written with no reference to the articles which appeared in that number. The readers of our June issue will remember that we took some exception to Mr. Ormsby's definition of case, with the view, as was then stated, of eliciting a further discussion of the points called in question. The response, delayed by his illness, is an able and candid defense of the view that case is that form or use of a noun or pronoun which indicates the subject of thought, the possessor, or the object of an action or relation. The term *use* includes position and whatever else, except form, may denote the three things specified. Why except form? The reason assigned is not quite satisfactory. But this subject has had more than its due share of space, and we must here close its discussion, at least for the present.

—— We are kindly permitted to anticipate the publication of Commissioner Harvey's report by presenting his official views and suggestions respecting the three great needs of the Ohio School System, to wit, a normal system, county supervision, and the township system. It will be noticed that these measures of school improvement are severally discussed more from a popular than from a professional stand-point, and this is wise. The teachers of the State are generally right on these subjects, and what is now needed is to reach and convince the people, to whom we must look for the necessary legislation. In view of these facts, Mr. Harvey has addressed his arguments to the common-sense and practical wisdom of the thousands of school-officers and other non-professional readers, to whom his report is largely to be sent, and whose opinions are so fully represented in the General Assembly. It seems unnecessary for us to do more than call attention to his presentation of these subjects. Both reason and experience attest the value of the measures therein advocated. They are the essential elements of an efficient school system. We fear that he asks for too little in the direction of normal instruction, but it will make a beginning.

—— The contributed paper in our November number on "The Geography Question" has elicited not a little discussion. It has been reviewed in several of our exchanges, and, so far as we have observed, the writers defend both the practical value of geography as a school study and its adaptation to common school pupils. On the other hand, several eminent teachers have privately indorsed the paper, and others, while not approving of Mr. Taylor's proposition to banish geography from the schools, favor an abridgement of the time now devoted to its study and a thorough pruning of geographical text-books. A

writer in the St. Louis *Journal* of *Education* claims that "descriptive geography", properly taught, is as easily understood as "Robinson Crusoe", and he urges that the true method of teaching the description of countries is by the use of outline maps and globes—by appealing to the *eye*—and that these descriptions should be recited according to a set of topics applicable to every country. We have long held and taught that the primary ideas of geography should be learned not from books but from nature; that, when the child has some real knowledge of his little world of home, he should then be made familiar with the outline and important features of the earth's surface by a critical study of maps, including map-drawing. Much more than half of all the geographical knowledge, which it is desirable to teach in elementary schools, may be learned by observation—from nature and good maps. These map studies should be accompanied by such oral descriptions as will awaken interest and fill out the mental pictures. The lessons on the "descriptive text", when reached, should be sandwiched between oral lessons designed to prepare the pupil for an intelligent study of the book.

—— We are moved to caution our readers in other States against the error of under-estimating the comparative efficiency of the school system of Ohio. The present general school law was enacted, in its main provisions, nearly twenty years ago, and the school system, then organized, was in advance of that in most of the States. It was wise and liberal in its financial provisions, and a somewhat wide observation justifies the belief that it is still one of the very best financial systems in the country. The city, town, and village school districts have a simple and efficient organization, and the schools are generally under, what may be called, professional supervision, and are well graded. We believe that the graded schools of Ohio are not excelled by those of any other State, and we know of no State which employs more city and other local superintendents or pays those employed more liberal salaries. The special weakness of the Ohio system is the provision (or want of provision) made for township or country districts. While the organization of the townships is a great improvement upon the old system, which gave to each country school a separate and independent board of directors, it has proved very complicated and hence inefficient. The township board and the sub-district directors are constantly in collision, and, between the two sets of managers, the schools are badly managed. What is imperatively needed is the simplification of the township organization—its complete *unification* by abolishing the sub-district boards. The present progress of the country schools of Ohio is largely due to the county system of examining and certificating teachers and the county teachers' institute. The county boards of examiners have done much to improve the scholarship of teachers, and the organization of these boards with three examiners has been a check to favoritism and retainment. We should be unwilling to see the duty of examining the teachers of a county entrusted to one person. The county boards of examiners and the county institutes need to be supplemented by efficient systems of school supervision and normal instruction. These added agencies would put the country schools of Ohio on a high and broad road of progress.

—— In a paper read at the last meeting of the American Social Science Association, by Dr. J. B. Upham, of Boston, it is stated that the ability of children of school age to appreciate the sounds of the scale and acquire an elementary knowledge of music, is almost universal. At a late test of this question in the primary and lower grammar classes in the Boston schools, it was found that of about forty pupils in the lowest primary class, whose average age was five and one-half years, only some half dozen were unable to sing in tune. Proceeding upwards in the grades, these instances became less frequent, and when the second year of the grammar course was reached, not a single discordant voice was found in a class of one hundred and eight pupils of the average age of twelve to thirteen years. Mr. Mason, the superintendent of music in the primary departments, states that he is accustomed "to disregard the exceptional cases among the smaller children, and to require them to participate in the musical exercises with the others, feeling confident that their voice and ear will be brought up to the standard in due time." Before music was a required exercise in the primary schools, less than a dozen of the thousand girls in the Hancock School were unable, from all causes, to attain a fair degree of success in music. Dr. Upham states that the results of musical instruction in Boston and other cities abundantly prove that music can be taught "as universally and as effectually as reading, writing, geography, or arithmetic." He also believes that it can be taught as economically as the other branches whenever a town or group of towns is large enough to allow the employment of a professional teacher to plan and superintend the instruction, which can be given by the regular teachers. He affirms that any teacher, possessing ordinary aptness and skill, can learn, in a very short time, to teach the elements of music as well as the other school branches, and, to this end, it is not necessary that the teacher be able to sing. He cites the statement of Mr. Holt, that only seven of the two hundred and fifty-one teachers who have been under his observation, have proved themselves unable to do their work satisfactorily. As a general rule, the teachers who are superior in other branches, obtain the best results in music. The essential condition is, that the regular teachers be under the direction of a competent professional teacher of music, and this condition may be met in village and rural districts by grouping the schools and forming a "circuit" of a week or ten days in extent.

—— The *National Normal* for December wishes to know the position of the National Teacher, and several other educational journals named, on the temperance and anti-tobacco issues. Bro. Holbrook may use the strongest English which he can command, in condemnation of the use of intoxicating liquor or tobacco, and we will indorse and emphasize his utterance. We do not regard the use of tobacco as great an evil as the use of strong drink, but, if we could decide a question of duty for others, the boys in our schools would not have the example of teacher or superintendent to excuse the forming of so expensive and injurious a habit. No person addicted to the improper use of liquor, should be employed in the position of teacher or superintendent.

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

At the meeting of the Superintendents' Section of the National Educational Association in St. Louis, the following preamble and resolutions were referred to a committee, of which Supt. Harris, of St. Louis, is Chairman, with instructions to consider and report on the subject at the next annual meeting:

WHEREAS, The present system of keeping statistics of school attendance is imperfect,—

1. *Because* it combines in one item the record of the pupil's irregularity and the record made against the pupil as an incentive to secure greater regularity, thus making the statistical record depend somewhat upon the strictness of the teacher in suspending pupils; and

2. *Because* it allows a different margin of registration for sick pupils from that for others, and again makes a difference between those who are absent intending to return and those who are absent without such intention.

AND WHEREAS, It is desirable to have three items in the record of school attendance entirely independent of the strictness or laxity of the teacher, and free from all arbitrariness whatsoever, to wit:

1. The total number registered or enrolled from the beginning of the scholastic year, without reference to length of time, members of school, or whether present members or not, *minus* those received by transfer from other schools in the same system (*sc.* city or township); and

2. The average number of those in daily or semi-daily attendance, counting together the number present each day, and dividing the sum by the total number of days in the given time; and

3. The average daily or semi-daily *number belonging*, an item embracing not only those in actual attendance, but those reasonably expected—the actual attendance *plus* those temporarily absent.

[*Note* (1.) The total enrollment compared with the actual average attendance, shows the irregularity of population, and the insufficiency of zeal or means on the part of the people at large to continue their children at school the whole scholastic year.

(2.) The average number belonging compared with the average daily attendance, shows the temporary irregularity, and indicates the strictness of discipline on the part of the teacher, the moral tone of the pupils, and, to a large extent, the prevailing tone of the community.]

For these reasons, *Be it Resolved*, That there be three items kept in the record of attendance, and that each of these items be kept carefully distinct from all records intended to have a disciplinary effect.

Be it further Resolved, That instead of the present method prevailing for the item of *average number belonging*, the following method be adopted:

That in all cases of absence from school, whether with intention of returning or not, whether the case be occasioned by sickness or other causes, including suspension of the pupil, *but* excepting solely the case of transfer to some other school in the same system; that the pupil's name be kept on the roll as *belonging* for *three whole days*, and dropped uniformly, in case he does not return on the seventh half day.

With the view of securing a more speedy trial of the scheme presented in these resolutions, the committee has issued a circular to City School Superintendents, submitting the same and requesting that steps be taken to introduce it into the schools under their charge. To what extent the recommendation of the committee has been acted upon, we are not informed, but we venture to express the hope that all use of the "average number belonging" as a basis of comparing school attendance, may soon be abandoned. The plan presented above is an improvement upon the "Chicago Rule," which it is intended to supersede, but it is open to the same serious objection, to-wit: that *it does not conform to the facts.* In one case, a pupil is considered a member of the school for three whole days after he has formally and actually withdrawn, and,

in another case, a pupil's name in just as arbitrarily struck from the roll when he is absent, for whatever cause, more than three days! It is plain that such a procedure does not tally with the facts.

The object in finding the average number of pupils belonging, as stated in the second of the committee's inserted notes, is to show the "*temporary* irregularity" of school attendance, but this, we think, may be much more simply done by comparing the average daily attendance with the *monthly* or *weekly enrollment*. As the average daily attendance compared with the *total yearly enrollment*, shows the extent to which the registered youth of a community actually enjoy the school advantages provided,—their continuance in school—so the average daily attendance compared with the *monthly enrollment*, shows the temporary regularity with which they attend school. The weekly enrollment may show this still more accurately, but, for reasons stated last month, we much prefer to take the monthly enrollment as the basis.

The adoption of the monthly enrollment as a basis for comparing the regularity of attendance in different schools, would give a simple and uniform method. There is no calling of "white black or black white." The average number of pupils in daily attendance and the number of pupils enrolled are both definite items—absolute facts, "entirely independent of the strictness or laxity of the teacher and free *from all arbitrariness whatever*." A comparison of these two facts shows not only temporary irregularities, but the effect of actual withdrawals from school. We commend this method to the favorable consideration of the able committee having this subject in charge.

THE TEACHER'S DAILY PREPARATION.

An Indiana correspondent takes us to task for the wish expressed in our November number, that there were a self-executing law, forbidding any teacher from attempting to conduct a recitation before he has so thoroughly mastered the lesson as to be able to recite it—to change places with the pupil with credit to himself. He thinks that while such a law might be reasonable if applied to those favored teachers who are required to conduct only three one hour or six half-hour recitations a day, and who have time for preparation, it would be very hard on the rank and file of teachers, who hear from nine to nineteen recitations daily. In the name of fairness he asks us "to ease up on the hard-worked teachers" and lay the blame on those who should provide time for the preparation required.

Having a lively sympathy for all over worked teachers, we would not knowingly make any unreasonable demand of them. The earnest appeal of our correspondent has, therefore, caused us to reconsider the oft-expressed wish to which he takes exception, but we see no good reason for re-calling it. The requirement is certainly reasonable when applied to recitations in reading, and writing. The teacher of arithmetic should at least be able to solve the problems readily, to recite the definitions and principles, when reached, and to deduce and state the rules, and the teacher of grammar should be able to give the definitions and rules, and to analyze and parse examples. Spelling

may be taught by one who is unable to spell the words pronounced, but it can be better taught by a good speller. Of the common branches there remains geography, and United States history. A teacher can "hear lessons" in each of these branches by reading the printed questions, but unless he can answer the questions asked, the class had better be dismissed and the farce ended. Thus our review but strengthens the conviction that our wish is not only reasonable, but that the requirement that the teacher be able to recite the lesson he teaches, is the lowest condition that can be approved.

We are aware, however, that such a law as the one we invoke, would be a serious inconvenience to that army of ill-prepared teachers who only "keep school" and, by a slavish use of the text-book, manage to "hear" a daily round of dreary lessons. Many of them would doubtless find their occupation gone, but their muster out of service would so elevate the business in dignity and pay, that applicants for the places vacated could afford to make some adequate preparation. Such a law would compel teachers having too many recitations, to consolidate their fragments of classes and make a more thorough classification; and it would also compel boards of education to consider the teacher's daily preparation in determining both the number of classes to be taught and the compensation to be allowed. It would also break up the *memoriter* routine which has so long passed current as teaching, for if teachers were required to take their own doses, they would not long prescribe the committing of pages of descriptive text in geography, history, etc.

We may mistake but we believe that there is a sad neglect of study and preparation among the rank and file of teachers; and this re-appears in poor teaching, inattentive classes, disorderly schools, and much discipline. More teachers are burdened by worry than by study, and more study would give less worry. It is assumed that the teacher has once mastered the branches of study he tries to teach. If this be true, it will take but a short time to review the lessons of the day. The teacher who so prepares himself daily that he is able to conduct recitations in one or more branches, if not in all, without the book, will find that he is proportionally increasing his skill, his influence, and his success.

——THERE has been quite an excitement at Hunter's Point, L. I., on the Bible question. Some weeks since the School Commissioners determined to enforce the reading of the Bible in one of the ward schools, which is attended by a large number of Catholic children. Several pupils refused to be present while the Bible was read, and were requested to leave the school. In one or two cases parents took their children back and insisted on their remaining. The next morning there was an open rebellion against the authority of the principal on the part of a few pupils, and the police were called in and two young men, engaged in it, were arrested, which caused great excitement in the community. The affair culminated in the expulsion of forty Catholic pupils. The difficulty has, however, been satisfactorily adjusted by the School Commissioners. They agree to allow all Catholic children to remain in the class-rooms during the chapel exercises, and the Catholics, through a committee, agree not to oppose the reading of the Bible in the school.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of this journal due him, we always remail it.

—— We can still supply back numbers of the National Teacher from July, 1871. The numbers from July to December inclusive will be sent, postage prepaid, for 75 cents. We shall soon bind, in muslin, with leather back, a few copies of the first volume of the Teacher. It will contain 642 pages, and the price, sent by mail, postpaid, will be $2.25—the cheapest educational volume yet offered to the teachers of this country.

—— We have much regretted the late appearance of several issues of our jour nal. The December number was delayed a week by the editor's absence and nearly another week by the indexing of the volume. We begin the new volume on time, and we hope to mail each succeeding number before the close of the preceding month.

—— Boards of Education, wishing to employ experienced teachers, will do well to address Supt. J. L. Pickard, Chicago, Ill. Over one hundred of the teachers, engaged in the schools before the great fire, are still out of employment. Many of these teachers would like to get temporary or permanent positions in other cities. A successful primary teacher may be secured by addressing the editor of this journal.

Personal.—Hon. B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut, who has spent several months inspecting the schools of Europe, expects to return home this month. He has been received with uniform courtesy, and has had every facility for acquiring information. ——Prof. Sidney A. Norton, who has been in Germany the past year, has returned and resumed his duties in the Miami Medical College, Cincinnati, O.——Prof. H. N. Bolander, of San Francisco, was elected Superintendent of Public Instruction of California in October, and has entered upon the duties of the office.——W. O. Hiskey, superintendent of the public schools of Minneapolis, Minn., died October 3, 1871, from apoplexy. He was a native of Ohio.——Charles R. Dean, of Port Hope, Mich., has been elected superintendent of the public schools of Sandusky, Ohio.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE DIFFERENT STATES.

Ohio.—We are indebted to Supt. Turrill, of Cumminsville, for a complete list of the teachers employed in Hamilton county outside of Cincinnati, with their monthly salaries, which range from $40 to $200. Two or three receive less than $40, and only the principals of graded schools receive more than $100. Instruction in German is given at Carthage, Ludlow Grove, Westwood, Cumminsville, Woodburn, and one or two other places. In Avondale, Mount Pleasant, Winton Place, College Hill, and Cleves a separate school-room is furnished the colored children, while in Harrison and Cumminsville they attend with others. There are about fifteen local boards of examiners, most of whom, however, do not examine, but merely indorse the certificates issued by the county board of examiners. The principal teachers of Glendale, Cheviot, Columbia, Cumminsville, Clifton, and Avondale hold State certificates. The preparation of this list must have cost much labor, and the undertaking of the work is an evidence of Mr. Turrill's devotion to the cause and his industry in its promotion.

Wooster University.—This institution, located at Wooster, O., was opened in the fall of 1870. The number of students, the first year, was 57, and a class of six graduated at the first commencement. The number of students this year is 70, eight being in the senior class. There is no preparatory department, the academies and

high schools being depended upon to furnish the preparation requisite for admission. At the close of the sophomore year, each student selects one of three courses of study. In the first course, the Ancient Languages are made prominent; in the second, Mathematics and Engineering; and in the third, Modern Languages. Hebrew is an optional study in the senior year. A Scientific Course has been established, which, it is intended, shall be worthy of the name. At the close of each term, all the students are subjected to a written examination on the studies of the term. The faculty now consists of the president, five professors, and two assistant professors, and one or two other professors will be elected at the close of the year.

The university building is pronounced by competent judges to be the best for college purposes in America. The building and grounds cost about $150,000. The library now contains 1500 well-selected volumes, the second installment of Mr. Bragg's donation of $5,000 worth of books having just been received. The sum of $5,000 has been expended in the purchase of philosophical and chemical apparatus. The endowment fund, now secured, amounts to $260,000, and efforts will be made largely to increase it. The above facts show that this new institution has made a good beginning, though it will, of course, take years to realize the expectations of its founders. Growth is a necessity of all institutions of learning.

NORTHEASTERN OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The meeting held in Cleveland, Saturday, December 9, was not so largely attended as several former meetings, but a considerable number of the towns of the Western Reserve were represented. School Commissioner Harvey delivered an address on the School System of Ohio, which was followed by a discussion on school legislation. Mr. Klem read an excellent paper on "Education for Freedmen." The following officers were elected: Hon. Thomas W. Harvey, president; Alex. Forbes, secretary; L. W. Day, treasurer; and Samuel Findley, chairman of executive committee. The next meeting will be held at Akron, the first Saturday in February.

CENTRAL OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The meeting at Delaware, the first Saturday of November, was the largest yet held. Some sixty of the Columbus teachers and several members of the Ohio Central Normal School, with representatives from other cities and towns, were present. Miss Mary Wirth, of the Columbus High School, read a paper on "Oratorical Exercises in School" which elicited an interesting discussion. Other practical topics were discussed. The next meeting is to be held at Worthington, in January.

GEORGIA.—At the annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held in Columbus, Ga., in May last, a committee was appointed to memorialize the General Assembly on the subject of amending the school law. This duty has been discharged by the committee in an able memorial. After giving a history of the present school law, which, in its leading features, embodies the system desired and improved by the State Teachers' Association in 1869, the committee urges several important amendments, chiefly correcting the departures of the law from the original plan of the Association. One of the most important of the changes suggested has reference to the raising of the funds necessary to organize and sustain the schools. It is wisely recommended that the distribution of the general fund by the State shall be conditional upon the raising of a fund by local taxation sufficient, with the State fund, to sustain an adequate number of schools in the county, *at least six months in the year*. This is the true policy. Such an inducement will correct, in the end, any lack of co-operation on the part of the people. But the most interesting portion of the memorial is that which relates to the education of colored youth. It fully "accepts the situation," and urges in a convincing argument that they should be admitted to an equal participation in the educational advantages provided by the public schools. It is also recommended that the duty of adopting text-books be entrusted to the county boards.

ILLINOIS.—We are in receipt of several letters from Southern Illinois, and all indicate a most encouraging interest in school improvement in that section of the State. County examiners are demanding higher qualifications of teachers, and the county superintendents are working zealously to secure progress in the schools. The increasing success of the county institutes is evidence of the new life which has been awakened. The institute held at Murphysboro, Jackson county, the second week of November, was the largest yet held in the county. The instruction was given by the leading teachers of the county, including the three examiners, Theodore James, R. J. Young, and G. D. Yokem. The institute was held under the direction of the County Superintendent, Dr. John Ford, who is an able and earnest worker in the good cause. The work on the building of the Southern Illinois Normal University is progressing finely, and it is expected that it will be ready for use next September. The institution will then be opened with the promise of large usefulness and success.

PENNSYLVANIA.—While in attendance upon the Chester County Teachers' Institute, we visited the West Chester State Normal School, opened in September last. The building is beautifully situated just outside of the borough, and commands a fine view of the surrounding country. It is commodious and admirably arranged, and every thing is "as neat as a pin." The internal appointments are in keeping with the external appearance of the building and the purpose of the institution. The cost of the building and grounds was $91,007.29, not including the furnishing, which is modern and elegant. The institution is already well attended and the beginning made gives promise of large success. It is under the efficient management of Prof. E. H. Cook, formerly principal of Woodstock Academy, Conn. It is the seventh of the twelve State Normal Schools, provided for by the school law of Pennsylvania.

MISSISSIPPI.—The new school system is encountering much opposition, but a good beginning has been made. A State Normal School has been established at Holly Springs, one of the healthiest and most beautiful cities in the State. The law requires that a teachers' institute shall be held annually in each Congressional district, continuing at least two weeks.——The *Mississippi Educational Journal*, started in February last by H. T. Fisher, of Jackson, who issued but four numbers, has passed into the hands of Hon. H. B. Pease, State Superintendent of Education, who is both editor and publisher. The several numbers issued by him are very creditable both in matter and appearance. It is one of the neatest educational journals in the country.

VIRGINIA.—The University of Virginia, located near Charlottesville, Va., is in a prosperous condition. It is organized as a comprehensive system of schools with a competent professor at the head of each. The instruction is imparted by lectures, which are supplemented by rigid examinations necessitating diligent study on the part of the students. The lectures are intended to be thorough and comprehensive. This method of instruction enables eighteen professors to teach nearly four hundred students, and the accommodations provided are sufficient for five or, six hundred. The buildings and grounds are large and handsome, and are well adapted to their several purpose. Prof. W. H. McGuffey, formerly of Ohio, is at the head of one of the departments.

MARYLAND.—At a meeting of the State Association of School Commissioners' held at Baltimore the first week of December, it was voted, with but one dissenting voice, "That some farther provision should be made by the General Assembly of Maryland for the gradual education of the colored children of the State." Why "gradual"? The public schools of Baltimore are making substantial and com-

mendable progress, and we are assured that a good school work is being done in the State. The State Normal School is in excellent condition. Under the efficient management of Prof. Newell, it has taken rank with the best normal schools of the country.

MASSACHUSETTS.—A Female Seminary to cost half a million of dollars is going up in Wellesley, Mass. Only the cellar has been put under contract, as this will be completed the present season. Brick, with stone dressing, will probably comprise the material for building the seminary, which is to be four stories in height. The main building is to have a length of four hundred and thirty feet, with an extreme width or length of the traverse wings of one hundred and sixty feet.—*College Courant.*

OTHER COUNTRIES.

ENGLAND.—The recent examinations of women by the University of London were held in six different places—Cambridge, Cheltenham, Liverpool, London, Manchester, and Rugby. One hundred and twenty-nine candidates entered, and of these twenty withdrew before the examination took place. All were required to qualify by first passing in divinity, arithmetic, English history, English literature, language, and composition, which studies were classified as "Group A." These, with the exception of the first, are branches of learning in which most young ladies in this country who have had good school advantages, are expected to be proficient. Yet thirty-six out of eighty-four of the lady candidates before the Cambridge examiners failed to pass in them. The report of the committee shows a great lack of thoroughness in all the subjects examined upon, and it is evident from their complaints that the young women of England must apply themselves to the elementary studies with zeal and perseverance before they shall be able to carry off the honors in the great universities.—*Phila. Press.*

——Compulsory education is henceforth to be the rule in London. The school-board of that city has agreed to a by-law which enacts that "the parent of every child between five and thirteen years of age is required to cause such child to attend school, unless there shall be a reasonable cause for non-attendance."

RUSSIA.—Schools are being established in all parts of the empire, and large sums of money expended by the government for their support. So great was the number of schools established, that an appropriation of seventeen million of dollars was not sufficient to meet the expenses. With all this vast expenditure, the results hitherto attained are far from satisfactory, owing in a great measure to the scarcity of teachers. Even in the universities, of which there are nine in Russia, one-third of the professorships were vacant at the beginning of the year. Though a large proportion when we consider the average number of instructors in each of these institutions is seventy, the deficiency is very much greater in the common schools. To obviate the latter difficulty, special schools have been opened for the preparation of teachers, and from them have already resulted very great benefits.—*College Courant.*

——RUSSIA is likely before long to afford to women educational advantages equal to those of Western Europe. For some years the lectures at the University of St. Petersburg were open to the public, and a great many women attended them. But the University was remodeled, and under the new regulations women were excluded, except from the medical lectures, which faculty forms a separate Academy, independent of the University. Recently, however, a large number of women have written to the University authorities requesting to be allowed to attend the other courses of lectures, especially in philology and natural sciences, and it is thought that their request will not be refused.—*The Advance.*

CHINA.—The Chinese government have decided to educate a portion of the young men of China in the language and laws of this country and in the manners and customs of the people. An appropriation of $1,500,000 has been made to meet the expenses necessary to be incurred in the next ten years. A Chinese gentleman, Mr. Yung Wing, who was educated in Yale College, has been engaged to take charge of thirty of these young men to the United States. They are designed to become students of this University, and will probably enter Yale College, following the course of Mr. Yung Wing. Each year this number is to be increased by the addition of thirty new students.—*College Courant.*

PRUSSIA.—The Minister of Education in Prussia has drawn up three bills of educational reform, which are shortly to be laid before the Council of State. The first provides for the establishment of training schools for teachers, the second for the improvement of imperial colleges, and the third for the establishment of schools of science. A move is to be made also for the improvement of female education.—*The Advance.*

FRANCE.—The Council General of the Department of the Seine, France, has voted in favor of the establishment of compulsory and gratuitous education, but has rejected the proposition to make the common schools wholly secular.——Paris has 260,000 children of school age, with school accommodations for only 89,000 of them.

——AN Italian journal states that in Bavaria there were found but seven illiterate conscripts in a hundred, while in France twenty-three in a hundred were illiterate. It is estimated that the number of illiterate persons in Holland is but three per cent. of the population. In Sweden only one adult in a thousand can not read and write, and in Wurtenberg there is not a peasant or servant who can not read, write, and keep accounts.

——AN exchange says that freedom and education go together. Brazil has no sooner abolished slavery than she calls for more school-books.

——Forty-one cases of school-slates were shipped, the other day, to Japan by a Pennsylvania company.

BOOK NOTICES.

ÆSTHETICS, OR THE SCIENCE OF BEAUTY. By JOHN BASCOM, Professor in Williams College. New York and Chicago: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

This is a new and valuable work by Prof. Bascom, sent forth in a beautiful style of book-work by its publishers as certainly becomes a work on Beauty. The general scope of the work may be gained from the following extract: "Since beauty has no absolute existence, but only exists as the quality or attribute of objects, we shall inquire to what objects it belongs, and what it is in those objects which gives it expression. As the complement of this inquiry, we shall wish to know the organ, the faculty through which this quality is received by us. Later we shall discuss the principles which determine its presence or absence, and as a practical application of the truths so established, we shall treat briefly of those arts, termed fine arts, in which the principles of æsthetics find fullest employment." This outline is well filled in, in the several chapters of the book. There are many very valuable thoughts and suggestions in regard to the fine arts and their ministry to the sense of the beautiful. The author stongly condemns nude art. His views of architecture are generally excellent. In the earlier and more metaphysical part of the book, the author gives three leading conditions of beauty, viz., expression, unity, and truth. We believe all conditions of the beautiful may be summed up in the idea of harmony

The sense of the beautiful lies in the same plane with the sense of truth. While truth is the simple harmony between a conception or statement and the reality, in whatever form the reality may exist, so beauty is the harmony of all the elements of form, color, motion, etc., etc., which in any case appeal to the æsthetic sense. To the highly cultivated taste the slightest discord or want of balance in the parts destroys the sense of the beautiful. Beauty and truth pass into each by insensible gradations. President Hopkins, in his admirable lectures on the connection between taste and morals, has shown in the analogous case of natural and moral beauty that they belong to the same family group. Truth in its highest generic character includes both beauty and morals, which are different species of harmony which every soul has the subtle power of perceiving and also distinguishing.

Prof. Bascom's work will do good by its many valuable hints, and by calling anew the attention of the lovers of the beautiful to the principles which not only underlie their tastes, but should control in all efforts at æsthetical cultivation. We most heartily commend the work.

LIGHT SCIENCE FOR LEISURE HOURS. A Series of Familiar Essays on Scientific Subjects, Natural Phenomena, etc. By RICHARD A. PROCTOR, B.A. Camb., F.R.A.S. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a capital book. Most attempts to popularize science are miserable failures. In the United States few of our better scientific men find the time to write for the newspapers. Indeed, "newspaper science", in this country, for the most part, comes from charlatans who seek only a cheap newspaper reputation. Mr. Proctor is a man of acknowledged scientific attainments, and is especially at home in the discussion of astronomical subjects. He has written several treatises of great value, and his contributions to "Nature" are always vigorous in thought and style. The essays in the book before us were written for English newspapers and magazines, and are all not only readable in style, but well worth reading for their matter. With one or two exceptions, they are as interesting to the American as the English reader. If we were the conductors of a large newspaper, we should be sure to republish the larger part of these essays. There is a growing desire among our more intelligent people for scientific knowledge, and yet few men have time for a full and scientific investigation of the subjects which interest them. They, however, know too much to accept of a science the crude and worthless stuff they find in many of our newspapers and in too many of our school books, prepared by men who are often ignorant of the first principles of science and who merely "cram" for the purpose of writing a book or an article. Having so often found asses in lion's skins, it will be a wonderful relief to them to take up such books as Mr. Proctor's, and find lions in lions' skins—to find, in other words, genuine science.

CHOICE SPECIMENS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE. Selected from the Chief American Writers. By BENJ. N. MARTIN, D.D., LL D., Professor in the University of the City of New York. 224 pp., 8mo. New York: Sheldon & Co.

This work is designed to supplement Shaw's Series of English Literature, and bears the cover-title of "Shaw's Choice Specimens of American Literature" Instead of confining his selections to those American writers who have a national reputation, the author has also included writers of local, professional and denominational prominence, This has so increased the number of writers that the selections are necessarily very brief, and hence but imperfectly show the literary characteristics of their writings. As a specimen catalogue of American writers the work will prove valuable, and it is also well adapted for use as an independent school reader. The author has given much attention to the literature of the West and South. The book is published in good style.

THE NATION.—This is not a newspaper, but a weekly paper devoted to views and criticisms of current events and current literature. It is of the "strong-meat" order of nourishment, and presupposes in its readers vigorous digestion. Its articles are always stimulating, and one finds its sharp, curt paragraphs and its fearless assaults on false philosophies and shams of every kind stirring his blood like a brisk walk in a frosty morning. It is we think sometimes wrong, but it is never weak and watered. The articles are evidently prepared by gentlemen whose tastes and studies fit them for the special topics they discuss. Hence each article is often like a condensed review, giving in a column or two what would fill pages in a magazine. Its political articles are very vigorous. All topics in which a moral element is involved, are discussed not only with vigor, but with a high and an unmistakable moral tone. Often the notices of books are of very high order. The weekly discussion of European events is of great interest and value. If we may venture a criticism, we would suggest that the editor uses his lance, which is long and sharp, upon *persons* rather more than befits the judicial mind and philosophic equipoise which the paper in other respects so admirably exhibits. Patience with *men* is not the pet virtue of the paper. It not only condemns the fruit, but sometimes girdles the tree. But it must be confessed that the provocation is often very great, and perhaps it is best that bad men should be thoroughly exposed by an independent paper entirely competent to the task. We cordially commend *The Nation* to all who love to read short, sharp, and well-written articles upon the men and things of the day and hour.

LITTELL'S LIVING AGE. Issued Every Saturday. $8.00 a year. Boston: Littell & Gay.

It is hardly necessary to speak a good word for this old and popular magazine. For the great majority of intelligent readers, this compendium of the best magazine literature of Great Britain is better than free access to the original sources from which Littell culls its treasures. But no one can well afford to take all the British magazines. It would cost too much in both money and time. Littell admirably suits the average tastes and need of intelligent Americans. The historical articles are alone worth the cost of the magazine, so are the serial stories, and so are the papers and extracts on scientific subjects. In addition to these, we find the most delicious poetry and miscellaneous odds and ends of the rarest interest filling every small interval of space,—very much as a measure of silver dollars might have the interstices filled with bright gold dollars. The fact that it comes to us every week with its fresh contents, is greatly in its favor. If we could take only one magazine, we should take Littell; and, if we took a dozen, we should still take Littell. He who has taken Littell for a series of years, and has preserved the numbers, has in them a small library of lasting value,—a literary storehouse to which he and his children can go, assured that they will find good things and no rubbish.

APPLETONS' JOURNAL (D. Appleton & Co., New York) continues to fill its well-chosen place in periodical literature. It presents weekly a great variety of instructive and entertaining matter, and its illustrations are worthy of its claims as a journal of art. A characteristic feature is a series of illustrated papers depicting American scenery. The illustrations are not fancy sketches, but they are based on the personal observations of the artists, among whom is Harry Fenn, who has both an eye and a pencil for the picturesque in nature. Portraits and biographical sketches of celebrities in literature, science, and art constitute another attractive feature. More space is given to stories and novels than we would wish, but the popular taste is doubtless well consulted. These are relieved by entertaining papers on popular science, travel, and current topics, and by pencil sketches by Darley, Worth, and other artists. Price $4 a year.

THE SCHOOL FESTIVAL.—The October number of this unique magazine was destroyed by the Chicago fire when ready to be mailed, but the publishers, with characteristic energy, have reprinted it. A copy is now before us looking as fresh and inviting as any of its predecessors. As the subscription lists were burned, the publishers request all subscribers to send their addresses, with a statement of the number of issues due them. All who are not subscribers, are requested to send *fifty* cents, the subscription price for one year. "The School Festival" is a quarterly magazine, filled with original dialogues, recitations, concert, motion, and other exercises for Sunday-school and day-school exhibitions, festivals, concerts, etc. Alfred L. Sewell & Co., publishers, Chicago, Ill.

THE NATIONAL SUNDAY-SCHOOL TEACHER for December will be cordially welcomed by the many thousands who have missed its monthly visits. It comes out of the fire, giving promise that its wonderful success has been but temporarily checked, and that it will soon reach a still larger circulation. This number was stereotyped and printed in Cincinnati. The leading article on "The Fire" is well written. "The Little Folks", with its charming illustrations to delight little readers, and "The Sunday-School Scholar", with its excellent reading for older boys and girls, also continue their welcome visits. These three periodicals are published by Adams, Blackmer & Lyon, Chicago, Ill.

——WILSON, HINKLE & Co.'s "Illustrated Catalogue" has been received. Those of our readers who are wont to think New England still stands far ahead of the rest of the country in educational matters, we would commend an examination of this Catalogue, which may be had on application to the publishers at Cincinnati. Printed in the most beautiful manner, containing the names of some of the very best publications now before the public, and covering almost the whole ground of instruction, except the classics and foreign language, this little book is a fitting exhibit of that peculiar enterprise and tact that have enabled the publishers with true Western enthusiasm, to enter the lists with, and so soon rival, our old and long established houses in the East.—*Rhode Island Schoolmaster.*

THE NURSERY (John L. Shorey, Boston, Mass.,) is an illustrated monthly magazine for the youngest readers. It was begun in 1867, and has since been the best work of the kind published, at least in this country. Its pictures make the eyes of the little four-year olds sparkle and, at the same time, they are works of art choice enough to win an artist's admiration. The contributions are a delight to the wee folks, and it is a rare sport that will take them from mamma's side while she has *The Nursery* open. Price $1.50 a year.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE TEACHER'S MANUAL. By Hiram Orcutt, M.A. Boston: Thompson, Bigelow & Brown. 1872.

YOUTH'S SPEAKER. By George R. Cathcart, M.A. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1872.

WORD-ANALYSIS: A Graded Word-Book. By William Swinton, A.M. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1872.

ARITHMETICAL EXAMPLES. Mental and Written (2,500). By Daniel W. Fish, A.M. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

CALISTHENIC SONGS. Illustrated. By Flora T. Parsons. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

FIRST BOOK IN COMPOSITION. By F. Brookfield. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

GIBSON & Co.'s PROGRESSIVE DRAWING COPY-BOOKS. In Twelve Numbers. Cincinnati: Gibson & Co.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER:

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THE SPIRIT OF SCHOOL DISCIPLINE.

BY REV. A. D. MAYO, CINCINNATI, O.

A Talk to the Pupils of the Cincinnati Normal School.

As I have listened from time to time to your recitations on school management, it has occurred to me that a talk on the spirit of school discipline would not be out of place, and to that topic I now invite your attention.

I am afraid a good many teachers do not yet comprehend the extensive meaning of this phrase, "school discipline." Thirty years ago, when I was a school teacher, school discipline was generally understood as "keeping order" in a room full of children. In order to impart knowledge to this restless crowd, it was obviously necessary that a certain degree of attention should be concentrated on the work, that disorderly children be brought to terms, and any expedient that would accomplish this purpose was deemed legitimate. As a narrow-mouthed bottle must be held upright and firm while anything is poured into it, so the consolidated childhood of the school-room must be kept "right side up" in order that the pedagogue may pour in his precious nectar of knowledge without spilling over the edges. Hence, in those days "keeping order" meant a vigorous administration and a perpetual anointing of the young disciples with the "oil of birch." As ordinary human nature was hardly adequate to the enforcement of such a system, there came up a special class

of schoolmasters who were called in, once in two or three years, to restore the run-down discipline in the school.

I have now in my memory several of these professional bullies of children, and were I to describe any one of a dozen scenes that occurred in my childhood under their administration, I fear I should fatally demoralize your attention for this occasion. Unfortunately, the idea still largely prevails among common-school teachers that "keeping order" at all hazards is the Alpha and Omega of school discipline. This class of teachers seem not to have the faintest idea of any moral obligation to develop the character of their little ones, and so they are kept quiet by bribes, threats, blows, or any other means, truthful or false, the work is supposed to be accomplished. There are still, I fear, ladies in school-rooms in Cincinnati in whose hands the rattan seems to fulfill the same office as the knitting needles in the hands of their grandmothers, to fill up the pauses of other occupation. As the good old Quaker brother announced to his spouse at supper that he had just found a squad of bad boys in his orchard, and "enticed them over the wall with a pitchfork," so these amiable guides of youth "entice" their youthful charges along the flowery paths of science by the perpetual tingle of the switch. It is unnecessary to characterize this style of school discipline as it deserves. It is superficial, ineffectual, semi-barbarous, and reduces the best collection of children to a drove of unruly human cattle, driven along a dusty road, whose only care is to keep out of the way of their hated driver.

School discipline, as taught in this Normal School, signifies quite another thing from this caricature of government. It means *everything you can do to develop character in your children*, as distinguished from the mere imparting of useful knowledge.

The American public school has two great objects in view. First, *to give to all children the rudiments of useful knowledge.* The vast majority of children in this city have only six years allowed them by their parents for their entire school life. At the end of this, their life of toil begins, which will be to them a life of monotonous drudgery, or a perpetual advancement in prosperity and happiness, according to their own intelligence and force of character. The Board of Education decides what branches of useful knowledge shall be imparted. This Normal School instructs you in the best methods of imparting that knowledge. When you enter the school-room your principal and the super-

intendent of schools, with an occasional help from special teachers, will further aid you in this important work.

But the second object of the American public school—the one to which the former is subsidiary—is *the development in the mass of American children of that force of personal character which shall qualify them to become American citizens.* This, indeed, is the real ground on which we claim the support of the public for our whole system of common schools. All these little boys, if they grow up, will become voters—each of them a sovereign citizen in the great American Republic. Each of these little girls, if she lives, will probably in some way, either as mother or friend, be responsible for the formation of the character of men in their youth, beside the performance of her own duties as a citizen of the country. So the public pays liberally to put these little boys and girls into a school of American citizenship, of which the two essential parts are instruction in useful knowledge and development of personal character.

Without this development of personal character, the knowledge you impart to these children will be of very little effect; for only knowledge that becomes a vital part of our manhood and womanhood tells in actual life. You are by no means the sole workers in this field of the development of character in these children. Their parents, their friends, the church, the city in which they live, their whole life is providentially ordered for this result. But it is doubtful if any one class of people has a better opportunity to develop character in children than the teachers of our public schools; indeed, in many instances, the school mistress is compelled to be, for the time, the spiritual mother of the child. So this matter of school discipline resolves itself into your solemn agreement with the people of this city to do your best to form in every child placed under your charge that style of personal character which shall fit it to be a good American citizen; which is only another name for being a good woman or man.

Now, just here lies one important peculiarity of our American public schools. You will hear a great deal about the admirable school systems of other countries, and, in many respects, especially in regard to methods of imparting knowledge, some of these schools can doubtless teach us many things. But one thing no other country can teach us, and that is the very thing we are now considering. In Germany, in France, in Italy, to a great extent in Great Britain, children are taught in schools as

well as everywhere else, to be the subjects in an aristocratic or imperial State. In the United States children must be everywhere taught to be citizens of the Republic, in which every man and woman has a commanding influence over government and society itself. The more you think on this distinction the more light you will have on the proper method of discipline in American common schools. In Europe the masses are only expected to obey laws; in this country the masses, through their representatives, make every law which they consent to obey. So American children must be taught, not only the art of obedience to law, but there must be developed in them that habit of self-control, reflection, and moral stamina, which will enable them, when they grow up, to make the laws and fashion the whole order of human society in which they are to live. In the Old World, when a prince is born, the most accomplished teachers are summoned from the whole empire to preside over his education. In America every child that enters the school-room is a potential prince or princess, whose future life may be more influential on the whole people than any of us is able to compute. To comprehend this peculiarity of American school life, you should study attentively the history and form of government of the United States,—a branch of knowledge in which I fear our lady teachers oftener fail than in any other.

So do not begin your life as teachers with the idea that your only duty is to enforce obedience to law in the school-room. Too many of our school teachers seem to feel and act in this position like despots, and enjoy the enforced obedience, sometimes even, one would think, the humiliation and abject slavery of the children under their rule. You can not succeed in enslaving fifty American children, because American society everywhere outside your school-room is teaching them to be free. But you can exasperate, crush, wound, pervert, and disgust those children in such a way that you may really unfit them for the responsible life that is before them. Too often does the teacher of this sort move about her school-room like an elephant in a flower garden, trampling out every sweet blossom of confidence and destroying all hope of growth in character. It is said that the grass that is pressed down by the roller on the lawn only becomes more tenacious and obstinate by the pressure; so the souls of these little children that are thus outraged by petty despotism are only biding their time to explode in rebellion against everything that is orderly and just.

How can you educate these children into this habit of self-control which shall develop the true national character, and make you one of the legislators of the State?

Moral government, like charity, begins at home. No child can educate another child. If you remain only a girl, with the average moral stamina and reflection of ordinary girls in their teens, you can not do this work. If you are not conscious by this time of a new spirit awakening within yourself, a spirit of serious reflection on your work, solemn responsibility to God and your country, tender love for childhood, a determination to withdraw from the follies and weakness of girlhood, and consecrate yourself as a young woman to this glorious field before you, it will be far better that you retire from this school and never assume the office of teacher. If you can not control your temper at home and with your friends; can not keep down the little jealousies, vanities, and freakishness, that so afflict girlhood; can not cure yourself of any habits of untidiness, general carelessness, indolence, inability to concentrate attention; if you can not be, in short, a young woman who everywhere impresses herself as one who has gained control of her own powers, and has a definite object in life, you can never succeed in the discipline of a school-room. If you have not thought sufficiently on this point already, I beg you at once to give your whole mind and heart to it, and if you do not understand what I now say, or do not think it possible to comply with such demands, you will not make the teacher we need.

Then begin at once to observe and study children. Study their habits, their little ways, their characters, their infinite variety of disposition; in short, learn all you can about children everywhere. Instead of "shutting down" on childhood as soon as you are out of the school-room and retreating into the selfish seclusion of your own mind, study children especially out of school; for only by knowing what children are and do outside can you rule your little kingdom within. An editor of a great newspaper always keeps his editorial eye open for an article, and by and by the whole world adjusts itself to him, and every day offers swarms of articles ready made to his command. So should you go about every day with your eye open to American childhood, and if you keep looking at children with a loving heart you will soon become so attracted and enchanted with this new world of observation that you will thank God for the great privilege of your life. It is not easy for all young people, even young

women, really to love childhood, and if any one of you is destitute of that feeling, and can not acquire it, you should never teach school. But almost every young woman has a natural love of children, and that natural affection you must educate and develop by every method in your power, until it becomes an overmastering principle of your nature. Love is the golden key that unlocks all souls, and the young woman that enters a dingy city school-room filled with restless little children, if she carries a loving spirit and a habit of constant observation of the ways of childhood, will be like a sun rising every morning upon her little family, and each member of it, like the plants and flowers at sunrise, will lift its head in the light.

Your observation will teach you that, of all creatures in the universe, little children require the greatest amount of patience and persistence for the development of their characters. Every child is obliged to range over a great extent of spiritual territory before it can find its own bearings and get its face set toward the light. A great deal of the willfulness, mischief, even wickedness, in children, is only the result of this irrepressible curiosity in exploring life. If this school were placed, to-day, in the Louvre at Paris, amid the most marvelous collection of beautiful and curious things on earth, you would behave very much as children when they first enter human life. This city is a fairy land to every child that skips along its pavement, brimming over with greater wonders than are told in the Arabian Nights. You must expect these little people will rush about hither and thither, dazzled, excited, bursting with wonder, trying to clutch a hundred things at once, half beside themselves. Especially is our American city life a terrible ordeal for childhood, and your children come to you often nervous, exasperated, exhausted, demoralized by the fearful rush of life all about them. How cruel then, how infinitely foolish, for a teacher to go into such a crowd like a martinet, laying down rules that demand a development of character rarely found in adults, and when they fail try to scold, or whip, or force everything to her own rule. You must have all the patience you can get, and pray for more every day. Yet, after all, you can only hope by perseverance, by working month after month, and year after year, to achieve an approximate result. I do not mean that you should be lax, or undecided, or excuse too much in children. I only mean that when your plan is formed and the idea of discipline fixed in your own mind, you should be content to approach it gradually, patiently, perse-

veringly. Everything that lasts in this world is of slow growth, and human character the slowest growth of all.

The power to control and develop character in children is greatly the power of personal presence. Mr. Emerson says the aristocracy of Great Britain have ruled the British Empire for centuries by the magic of lofty manners. John Adams once said Washington succeeded because he knew enough to keep his mouth shut. To talk well and wisely is a great power, and many people greatly influence society by their power of expression. But the teacher who can preserve a manner at once affectionate, powerful, and dignified, and is economical of speech, enters the school-room with a prodigious advantage. Nothing amuses a mischievous crowd of children like a teacher who flies about like a restless hen protecting her brood, with ruffled feathers, clucking her displeasure, and filling the hours with a never ceasing cackle of useless talk. They enjoy the spectacle hugely, knowing she will in due time "run out" and they be left to their own pleasant devices. Our oral system of teaching, with all its advantages, has this great temptation; that it offers the opportunity for one of these loquacious teachers to flood her audience with a thin decoction of learning, seasoned with the pepper and salt of reproof and moral precept. Avoid too much speech and a restless manner as the worst foes of true success. Cultivate a pleasant dignity and grace, a method of speaking plain, direct, but decisive, and as brief as you can handle. This matter of presence is an outgrowth of character, and you must observe all I have said previously if you desire to succeed in acquiring it. It will surely come with ripening culture and experience, and it is one of the most decided tokens of power in the teacher. There are some people so electric with life that they sway all souls by their presence; wherever they go a virtue seems to pass out of them; their face is a benediction and an inspiration, and dependent souls turn to them as the sun-flower turns to the sun. Aim perpetually to be to your children, not a stern governor or a marplot to all their happiness, but a gracious incarnation of wisdom, justice, and love. The ancients rightly symbolized wisdom in the form of the Goddess Minerva; for only where science is embosomed in a lofty and loving presence, are children won and moulded to a higher life.

A great help in this development of the American style of character in our children is the cultivation of habits of unselfish activity. Try to show your pupils in the school-room that they

are one family, for the time brothers and sisters—that they all ought to be proud of the success, all grieved at the disgrace of any of their number. The habit of some teachers of keeping certain feeble, slow, mischievous scholars in their room under a perpetual fire of ridicule and humiliating criticism, is thoroughly wrong. Our system of marking and stimulation, through examinations, requires a reform; it throws the scholar who needs encouragement and support too much under the feet of the class, and fills the brain and heart of the bright children with something like an insanity that haunts them through their waking and sleeping hours. But even this stimulating system is too often systematically perverted by mechanical teachers who sow in the school-room the seeds of these bitter rivalries, jealousies, and heart-burnings that so desolate our whole social state. If you have a dull section in your room, persuade your family of scholars to close about it and help it out; if a lazy or mischievous squad, inspire the leaders of the room to awaken them to a sense of duty; if a violent boy, the victim of a wretched home, teach every good boy to feel an obligation on his soul to bring that unfortunate one back to virtue. You must often accomplish through your best scholars what you never can do alone. A school-room should be governed a good deal by a healthy public opinion among the children which frowns on disobedience and indolence and encourages their opposites. If you can help form that public opinion, you have done the best thing to prepare the children for American citizenship. How do we keep men and women in a tolerable state of morality and order in Cincinnati? Not by sending round a policeman to strike with his club on the head every man or woman who does wrong. We keep the policeman for the last resort, and rely on public opinion to give man and woman their place in society. To go about personally correcting and punishing every offense in a school-room is like bringing the highest power in the State to crush out the least offenses. You can only suppress vice in this way; while the problem is to root it out by making your family see that it is their mortal foe, and using this public opinion to work its natural results in elevating the character of the school-room. Do not make yourself the body-servant of your pupils. Teach them to wait upon themselves and wait on each other. It may create a little more confusion, or occupy a little more time to set a committee of the children to gathering up garments, or performing any necessary work, than to do it yourself; but if you do all

these things you are confirming the worst tendencies of American youth, to claim the labor of their elders for their perpetual amusement and comfort. Even the Almighty can not satisfy the diseased craving of many of our children to be waited on. Teach them that American children are equal before the law, and all must learn to "do as they would be done by" in the minor matters of daily life. A cheerful, unselfish activity is the best school of virtue, and every school-room should be such a nursery of character.

I am aware that even these expedients will not always reach the criminal class in the school-room. My whole theory of corporal punishment is, that it is to the school what the criminal court and its penalties are to society. *To whip or strike a child puts him at once into the criminal class in your room;* and to do this for a small offense is like putting a citizen in jail for lying, or anger, or anything except a dangerous offense. Thousands of children are ruined for life by being treated like criminals in the family and the school. *Never give a pupil a blow till you have deliberately made up your mind whether you are willing to incur the responsibility of placing him among the criminals of the only society he knows anything about.* A school-house where the rattan is perpetually switching children, used to punish the dull, to suppress the mischievous, to stimulate laggard powers, to enforce silence, to punish the myriad offenses of trivial nature that beset any crowd of children—where the principal is a sort of executioner down stairs, to whom the irresolute ladies above apply to do work repulsive to themselves—is a nursery of criminals; the most ingenious device for filling our jails and penitentiaries. Keep your rattan out of sight; never strike a blow till every other method fails; and then let your punishment be so just that the public opinion of your room stands behind you, and the offender feels he is chastised by the class through you. One hasty or unjust punishment often ruins the reputation of a teacher with the whole class, and henceforth the hearts of all her little ones are turned away from her. For incorrigible wickedness in a child, you should call for aid upon your principal; but our lady teachers have fallen too much into the habit of burdening their superior officer with a multitude of offenses which they could better deal with themselves. If you feel yourself responsible for the conduct of your pupils, you will not go to your principal in a case of discipline until you and your school have done your best. It would often be better to call in a dozen of your best

boys and girls to talk over the case of an obstinate offender and set their hearts and heads at work for his reformation, than to turn him over to the supreme authority for summary punishment. A principal is not a refuge for the timidity, indolence or indifference of his lady teachers, but a man placed at the center to vitalize the whole house and enable any subordinate to shoulder her whole duty. I believe we shall by and by come to the point of a reformatory department in every school system where the incorrigible criminals that do so tax our patience, can be placed under the care of wise, gentle, and strong teachers for reformation. Such a department would be an untold blessing to multitudes of parents who now have lost control over their children and revolt from the public disgrace of our asylums for juvenile offenders. Many a boy or girl could thus be saved who now grows up a pest to society.

I well understand that all this may seem to you too difficult and lofty, and perhaps discourage rather than inspire you. But remember that excellence is only attained by working toward lofty ideals. Fix your eye on something like this, and put the whole force of your life into its attainment, and you can not help growing broader, better, wiser, more successful teachers every month. For the whole secret of great success in life is to get on the right track, become enthusiastic, and throw yourselves with all your might into your work. Then Omnipotence closes up behind you as the ocean lifts the least wave on the rising tide till it mounts the crest of the sea, reflecting the whole firmament as it hovers an instant in the glittering line that sweeps with irresistible force to the shore. Your duty is to look toward your work and do the wisest, best, and most beautiful thing within you, and an unseen yet omnipresent love will do the rest.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS—THEIR FAULTS AND REMEDIES.

BY Z. RICHARDS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Nearly every friend of our public schools must have observed that there is a growing dissatisfaction with the results accomplished in them, and especially in the primary schools. It is with regret that we say that there is good reason for some of the complaints which are so common. While these schools are doing

great good, they are also responsible for many evils, and hence are failing to accomplish all the good they ought.

In the first place, it is painfully evident that, with very few exceptions, our primary schools especially are doing much to injure the physical health of the children who attend them. At first sight, this may seem to be only a physical evil; but it really proves to be both an intellectual and a moral evil. If the young plant becomes bruised and deformed by bad culture, it must be equally true that young minds may become dwarfed and distorted by improper physical culture. As young plants need the fresh open air and the sun-light, so do young children's bodies.

Our school-houses, as the gardens in which young children are to receive much of their culture, if they do not happen to be so contrived and located as to be little better than pest houses, they are very often made so by improper use. Children are closely shut up in them, in confined air which becomes impregnated with odors from unwashed bodies and clothing and also from diseased and over-loaded stomachs. They are kept inactive and still for four and five hours daily, when their natures require exactly the opposite treatment. These evils alone are so great in multitudes of cases that all the knowledge or training usually acquired, can not be a sufficient compensation.

Physical confinement of young children is unnatural and destructive to their health; but when to it is added the fetid atmosphere of a close, unventilated school-room, diseases are not only generated, but perpetuated. Yet one of the most lauded excellencies of a school of fifty or sixty children, is the teacher's success in keeping them all still, and of course inactive, for four or five hours each day. No wonder that the children of such a school become like sickly plants, and die prematurely.

Our healthiest men and women would not only be disgusted, but they would sicken and die as the children do, if they were immured in such school-rooms, sitting quietly five hours daily upon a hard bench. The teachers themselves would not live out half their days, were they subjected to the same bodily inactivity as their pupils. As it is, how many of our female teachers are tortured from day to day with headaches, foul breath, dyspepsia, and physical exhaustion. We have drawn no fancy picture, neither have we given all the coloring it will bear.

There is another evil, which has been often referred to of late, and which, in addition to its injurious effects upon the health,

especially serves to dwarf the minds of children, and unfit them for healthy mental effort. This evil is called "cramming", and, in the estimation of some, it consists in overloading the minds of children with knowledge. While the effects of this evil are of a serious nature and ought to be deprecated, we do not believe that the difficulty is in acquiring too much knowledge, or in studying too much. The evil is due to the over-taxing of the memory to the exclusion of some of the other mental faculties—a very objectionable kind of mental gymnastic, which does not result in the acquisition of knowledge, but in a distorted and unequal development of the mind.

That the evils of the so-called "cramming process" do not result from the acquisition of too much knowledge, or from learning too much, is evident from the fact, now generally admitted, that children actually gain more knowledge of things and of language during the first five years of life *out of school*, than they do the next five years *in school*, under even what may be called "hot-house pressure."

In a majority of our primary schools, children learn very little during the first three years of school life as a direct result of school instruction. During even this period they gain more useful and practical knowledge at home and out of school, than they do in school. While in school they are usually required to memorize the contents of their numerous books, before they can so read as to understand their language. Who has not seen multitudes of young boys and girls in our cities puffing and staggering along to school with a huge pack of school books, often requiring the aid of a servant or of a carriage to convey them! The use of these books does not increase their knowledge, but it serves chiefly to tax and weary their memories. Very little do such children learn from their books of what they need to know of the realities of life, and of the natural world. The unnatural and consequently uninteresting course of school training creates a disgust and dislike for the school, and injures both the bodies and minds of children.

But children will never tire in acquiring knowledge according to nature's method. While we disapprove and detest the so-called "cramming process", which prevails in too many of our schools, we feel compelled to say that we think the children of our primary schools can and should be made to gain four times as much useful knowledge during the first three years of school as they usually acquire. This statement will appear reasonable,

when we reflect that *one-half* of the children who attend school in our most favored localities, do not attend, on an average, more than *two* years, and that only about *four-fifths* attend school more than four years.

These are important and alarming facts; and they show why so large a portion of the people are obliged to put up with such a limited education, unable to comprehend or appreciate the uses and beauties of language, science, and human culture. They also show that a great revolution is needed in the manner of conducting our primary schools; that more useful knowledge and training should be acquired during the few years of school life; that we ought to have the best talent and qualifications, and the best professional training in the teachers of our lowest grades of schools.

Thus far we have shown some of the defects in our primary schools. Hereafter we propose to suggest several important remedies.

MUSICAL INSTRUCTION IN THE BOSTON SCHOOLS.*

A combination of vocal and physical training, in connection with their musical tuition, has been devised for the younger pupils by the joint effort of the teachers of vocal and physical culture and of music. This proper training of the voice, it has been well remarked, is the best possible preparation for singing. A systematic and progressive course of musical instruction is thus given to all the pupils of the public schools in the city of Boston, except the boys of the Latin and English High Schools, where the plan is not yet fully in operation, commencing with the children of five or six years of age, when they first enter the primary school-room, and ending with the highest class of the pupils of the Girls' High and Normal Schools, who are themselves preparing to become teachers in their turn.

Let us go over this method of instruction in somewhat of detail; and I will confine your attention more particularly to the stages of instruction during the period of primary and the lower half of the grammar-school pupilage, *i. e.*, a period extending

* From a Paper read at a meeting of the American Social Science Association, by J. Baxter Upham, M.D., Chairman of the Committee on Music, Boston, Mass.

from the age of five to about twelve or thirteen years, this being the compass within which the large majority of the children attending our public schools may be found, and, to my mind, by far the most important age for public musical education.

The first attempt of the teacher is to gain the attention of the children by singing to them some easy melodic phrase within the range adapted to their voices, and asking them to repeat it after him,—to imitate the sounds he has given them, in their proper order. This, after a few trials, the majority of the class will do. Some ten or fifteen minutes are spent in this way, and they have taken their first lesson in music. It is purely a matter of rote-singing, of the easiest and simplest kind. The interest of the children is excited, their attention aroused, their appreciation of musical sounds for the first time perhaps awakened. A few lessons are given in this way at the outset.

But true rote-singing, as Mr. Mason has happily expressed it, is "a very different thing from the ordinary 'hap-hazard' singing we too often find in our Sunday-schools and in common schools where no regular instruction in music is given." It is an appeal to the imitative faculty, which young children possess in so great a degree of perfection; and hence the greatest care should be taken that the example be a proper model for imitation as regards method and style, and purity and correctness of tone, even in the utterance of the simplest musical phrase. These preliminary rote-lessons should therefore be given, when possible, by the professional teacher himself; and they must needs be few and not long continued.

Even at this early stage in the musical instruction great attention is given to the formation of a proper quality of voice. The difference between a good and bad quality is illustrated by examples. The child is called upon to use a smooth and pleasant intonation in speaking, in reading, in recitation, and in singing. Above all, he is taught to avoid a noisy use of the voice.

As preliminary to the exercise of the voice in singing—and it applies to the reading as well—the young children are trained in the following points:

1. A proper position of the body.
2. The right management of the breath.
3. A good quality of utterance, as just mentioned.
4. The correct sound of the vowels.
5. A good articulation.
6. Intelligent expression.

Care, too, is to be taken in the singing exercises of young

children, that a too great compass be not attempted. The child is allowed to sing only in the middle register, or where he makes the tones with the least effort. Commencing our instruction with the rote-singing, as already stated, the first five sounds of the G scale are only attempted at the outset. Even within this limited range many of the best juvenile songs may be found, After the voice has been well practised in this compass, it may be extended upward and downward to a judicious extent, taking care *not to strain* the voice in the least degree.

The pitch and compass of the voice having thus been attended to, musical phrases of easy rhythmical structure are next taught in double and in triple time, the rote method still being used. Various devices are resorted to to attract and keep the attention of the child to the lesson, (*i. e.*, marking the movement by a curve upon the blackboard, holding up the hand and pointing out the motives, sections, and phrases upon the fingers in turn, etc., etc.) At this stage, musical notation, in its simplest form, is begun. The teacher explains—gives examples which the pupil is required to imitate. With all these, practical exercises upon the sounds of the scale are intermingled.

In the second year of primary instruction, the pupil is taught to know the different kinds of notes and rests, to understand the nature of quadruple and sextuple time, and the manner of beating the same, the accentuation as applied to music, etc. He is also mildly indoctrinated into the mysteries of the chromatic scale, so far as the simple change from the natural into the keys of G and F major is concerned.

In the third and last year of primary instruction, he is taught to describe by its intervals the major diatonic scale, etc., etc.

In the lowest class in the grammar schools, the pupil is rapidly led over the whole ground taken in his primary course, now and henceforward by reference to the musical characters—rote-teaching and rote-singing being for the most part abandoned. The child is now expected to begin to read the notation of simple musical phrases at sight. I can not better explain the progress and method of instruction in the lower grades of the grammar classes than by quoting the words of Mr. Holt, in his recent report of his doings, to Mr. Eichberg, and which appears as an appendix to the semi-annual report of the standing committee on Music, under date of 20th December last. He speaks as follows:

"In my sixth class is commenced an intellectual study of the sounds of the scale.

"To illustrate: Children are taught to recognize any sound of the scale, by its scale name; as, 1, 2, 3, 1, 4, 2, 5, 6, 4, 7, 8, etc.; and they will produce the same at the dictation of the teacher. This is to educate the ear.

"One or two minutes are spent in this exercise, which are followed by a representation of the sounds, which trains the eye together with the ear.*

"Five minutes are spent in this way, each day, as a drill exercise, followed by practice upon the music charts. The result of this drill is remarkable. The ear becomes so well trained that children will go to the blackboard and write the scale, or *pitch name* of any sounds given with the syllable *la*. This drill of single sounds is followed by Triad practice, after which the class is divided, an additional pointer used, and the pupil is trained in two part harmony.*

"This is followed by the practice of two part songs upon the charts, together with the beating of the time; and, in addition to this, in the fifth and fourth classes, by the chromatic scale and a study of the keys which grow out of it.*

"And such has been the progress that children ten years of age will go to the blackboard and write the pitch of any progression of sounds which may be given in any of the sharp keys.

"I think it is safe to say that, at the end of the school year, the fourth class will have so practical a knowledge of all the nine different keys, that they will sing correctly any choral which may be written in any of those keys, at sight.

"The pupils become familiar with the position of each scale upon the staff, the same as in the key of C.*

In the third, or next higher class, is introduced the study of the intervals, the chords and the triads. At the end of this year the pupils can readily sing in plain three-part harmonies, and should understand all the signs and characters used in musical composition, and be able to comprehend and read at sight any of the music found in our ordinary collections of psalmody.

This, as I said at the outset, is as far as I think it expedient, for the present, to carry these illustrations, since it covers the most important part of the ground to be occupied in the general introduction of a system of musical teaching in the common schools of the land. Thus much, then, for musical instruction as it is given in the Boston public schools. The question now returns, Can such instruction be made available, at a moderate expense, in our public schools, generally throughout the country? And if so, how? and at what cost?

An essential element in the plan of such teaching, as we have seen, is this: that it be given mainly by the regular school teachers, with the aid and general direction only of a professional teacher. We have seen that a single professional teacher can superintend the instruction of a large number of pupils,—just how many will depend upon circumstances. The number may be more or less, according to the density of the population, and to the general ability of the corps of regular teachers employed.

* The illustrative exercises given in the report are omitted.—Ed.

TOO MUCH SUPERVISION.

BY A. B. JOHNSON.

It is an easy thing for the principal of a public school of several hundred scholars to convince the board of trustees that all of his time is required for general supervision; and he may busy himself continually in doing police duty, in making out reports, and in flitting from one grade or department to another. He may thus *seem* to do much necessary labor, while the school loses the best service which he has the ability to render. Besides the liberty to do any thing and every thing often results in mere *fussiness.*

A superintendent may suppose that he has adopted the best theories and methods of instruction, he may have the machinery of his school in apparently fine working order, his assistant teachers may go through with all the *motions* that seem necessary to produce good results, and he may even figure out such results in his annual report, and yet not a tithe of what might have been done with the means at his command, may be accomplished.

As many of our public schools are now organized and conducted, the child may pass through all the grades in the course of study without coming directly in contact with a strong, vigorous mind,—with one able to instruct him and to awaken in him a noble ambition and a strong desire for knowledge. This is an office which it is the duty and privilege of the principal of the school to fill.

There is no good reason why he should not be the chief teacher of the highest grade of scholars, and be held personally responsible for results in his department; and, moreover, his grade should be a model for all others in the building. If the principal takes the laboring oar himself, he can exact more from his subordinate teachers. He will be in a position to offer them examples of practice as well as theory. If he is himself in daily practice, his instructions to them will have a freshness and practical bearing which will be felt and appreciated.

If the school has been well organized and is sharply graded, with a corps of carefully selected assistant teachers, only a small portion of the time allotted to school work need be employed by the principal in general supervision. A few minutes, two or three times a week, spent in each grade, will suffice to furnish

him with all the information required properly to instruct his subordinates and to keep his school well in hand. A general teachers' meeting once a week, held after school hours, will afford opportunity for an exchange of views, comments by the principal on the notes made during his visits, and for any instruction in regard to new methods that may be necessary. In regard to the general government of the school, it is enough that all know that the principal is within easy call, and that any flagrant violation of the rules or any extraordinary case of discipline may be referred to him.

The young teacher may be greatly benefited by receiving general instructions from those having more knowledge and experience in the business; but in the school-room he should be left free to adopt his own means of government and methods of instruction, and, although these may be open to criticism, they will for all that be more effective with him than a mixed, maudlin imitation of another's plans. He should, as far as possible, be made to feel that he is supreme in his own department, and that he will be held responsible for results. Careful inspection, *without criticism*, will often incite the teacher to the most searching scrutiny of his own work; and any errors observed will be much more effectually corrected at his own, than at the instigation of another. Any unpleasant feeling, which might otherwise arise, will also be avoided.

JOTTINGS.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

The following items were gathered in the reading of a book published in 1698, containing the narrative of Father Hennepin, followed by sketches entitled "Joliets Travels", "La Salles Voyage", and "Marquette's Travels." (Notice the omission of the apostrophe in the first two names.)

35. The following quotation shows Hennepin's spelling of *Mississippi* and the meaning of the word. In each of the three sketches in the same book alluded to above, *Mississippi* is spelled "*Missisipi.*"

"We embark'd on the *Third* of December, being Three and thirty Men in Eight Canow's, and having left the Lake of the

Illinois, went up the River *Miamis*, which we had sounded before. We made about five and twenty Leagues to the South-West, but cou'd not discover the Place where we were to land, and carry our Canow's and Equipage into the River of the *Illinois*, which falls into that of Meschasipi, that is, in the Language of the *Illinois*, the *Great River*."—P. 86.

36. "This Word *Illinois* comes, as it has been already observ'd, from *Illini* which in the Language of that Nation signifies, *A perfect and* accomplish'd Man."—P. 95.

37. The animal referred to in the following quotation is, no doubt, the opossum:

"I have already mention'd a little Animal, like a Musk'd Rat, that *M. la Salle* kill'd as we came from Fort *Miamis* to the *Illinois* which deserves a particular Description. It looks like a Rat as to the Shape of its Body, but it is as big as a Cat: His Skin looks Silver-like with some fair black Hair, which makes the Colour the more admirable. His Tail is without any Hair, as big as a Man's Finger, and about a Foot long, wherewith he hangs himself to the Boughs of Trees. That Creature has under the Belly a kind of a Bag wherein they put their young ones when they are pursu'd; which is one of the most wonderful things of the World, and a clear Demonstration of the Providence and Goodness of the Almighty, who takes so particular a Care of the meanest of his Creatures."—P. 38.

38. The following reveals the original and French spelling of Wisconsin:

"But on the Eastward we met with a pretty large River, call'd *Ouisconsin*, or *Misconsin**."—P. 145.

39. "The Navigation of the *Meschasipi* is interrupted ten Leagues above this River of the *Grave*, by a Fall of fifty or sixty Foot, which we call'd *The Fall of St. Anthony of Padua*, whom we had taken for the Protector of our Discovery. There is a Rock of a Pyramidal Figure, just in the middle of the Fall of the River."—P. 146.

40. "We call'd this River *The River of St. Francis;* and it was in this Place that we were made slaves by the *Issati*."—P. 147.

41. "This Place is call'd *Thousand Islands*, because there are so many of them, that 'tis impossible to tell them. The Stream is here very rapid; but its Swiftness is prodigiously increas'd, by the

* "Mesconsin" in "Marquette's Travels" and "Misconsing" in "Joliets Travels."

great Quantity of Waters that come from the other Lakes above-mention'd, and a great many Rivers that run into this, in the Place call'd *The Long Fall*, which makes it as dreadful as the great Fall of *Niagara*."

42. "On the East is the Country of the Hurons so called, because they burn their Hair, and leave but a little Tuft upon their Head, which stares like a wild Boar's Bristles."—P. 138.

43. The following sentence is found on p. 158 of F. A. Michaux's Travels in 1802, published in London in 1805:

"Thence this country derives the name of Kentucky, which signifies, in the language of the natives, *the Land of Blood*."

EXTRACTS FROM AN EVERY-DAY BOOK.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

I. Men, hard to persuade, when won to a cause, support it most zealously; they are like Anthracite coal, which ignites with difficulty, but when once got to burning, makes the hottest of fires.

II. The eagle supports himself in the lower atmosphere the more easily for having flown to the rare, sunward regions far above the surface of the earth: so the plain of common morality is kept without difficulty by those who are accustomed to ascend to the serene height of religion.

III. In burning delicate china ware, the utmost care is taken to regulate the temperature of the oven, as too much or too little heat ruins the ware. A like circumspection ought to be used in the disciplining of sensitive children, little girls in particular, since too much or too little severity may injure them.

IV. Repression is sometimes better than robust expansion, and produces nobler results. A rose is but a crowded cluster of repressed common leaves.

V. Culture may produce new and good qualities at the expense of others that are desirable. Wild fruits lose an exquisite flavor and aroma by the means that cause them to become large and fine-looking.

VI. Bacon says in the third book of the Advancement of Learning, that he is convinced that the opinion that the earth has a diurnal motion, "is most false." He was well convinced

of the truth of other facts that modern science has proven false. And yet Bacon was very wise, deeply learned, and far in advance of his times in the general correctness of his views. Implicit faith can not be put in any man.

VII. The ripe novel-reader most enjoys those passages which the green one is likely to omit.

VIII. Thierry calls history, *narration;* Volney, *science of dead facts;* M. Guyzot, *analysis:* Michelet, *resurrection.*

IX. On Mr. H——'s place I saw a vine the aggregate length of which, including all the branches, is *five hundred feet.* What a growth for a single seed in a single season! But the vine is only a *squash plant.*

X. Every occupation gives origin to peculiar similes. A farmer speaking of his neighbor's embarrassed circumstances and inability to extricate himself from surrounding difficulties, compared him to *a toad under a harrow.*

XI. Intenser heats and more violent storms occur at the tropics than at the equator: so the borders of every contested region are the scene of more severe conflict than the interior.

XII. It would be an interesting study to compare with one another the celebrated *Gentlemen* of Fiction among whom are Roger de Coverley, Sir Charles Grandison, Don Quixote, Colonel Newcome, Mr. Pickwick, Amyas Leigh, and John Halifax.

XIII. Michelet says "each addition to woman's influence is a step in morality."

XIV. Neither trust implicitly the authority of the learned, nor slight the belief and testimony of the illiterate. The educated often err, the ignorant are sometimes first to discover truth.

XV. "How long should education last? For life. What is the first part of politics? Education. The second? Education. And the third? Education."—*Michelet.*

XVI. The teacher ought to know not only how to govern his pupils, but also how to induce them to govern themselves. To govern them is a coarse art; to induce them to govern themselves is a fine art.

XVII. In forming certain chemical precipitates care must be taken not to add too much of the reagent, lest the precipitate be redissolved. Some moralizers in school and elsewhere destroy the good effects of brief and judicious counsel by too much talk. The precipitate of contrition and good resolve is destroyed in excess of words.

XVIII. Travelers safely descend the Andes on the backs of mules trained to slide down steep acclivities with great swiftness and security. The rider must hold himself steady, and can neither urge, check, nor guide his beast without imminent danger of being dashed to pieces. Political and other organizations, in perilous times, resemble these Andean mules. We had better hold on to them firmly until present danger is past. Violent efforts to reform parties, creeds, and social conditions at critical junctures, may result in the total destruction of ourselves and the organization we wish to improve. It is safest to let the mule slide in his accustomed way until safe ground is reached; then he may be taught new paces.

XIX. "Solitude either develops the mental powers, or renders men dull and vicious."—*Victor Hugo.*

SIGNS.

The writer of the article on this subject in the January number asserts that the expression ab is quite different from $a \times b$, but does not tell us in what that difference consists. His next objection to my rule is, that such expressions as $48 \div 4 \times 3 \div 2$ and $48 \div 4 \times 3 \times 2$ give the same result. He thinks this is absurd. Let us see. In the first the dividend is to be divided by 2; in the second the divisor is to be multiplied by 2. All authorities agree that dividing the dividend or multiplying the divisor by the same number produces the same effect on the quotient. In what, then, does the absurdity consist? Perhaps it is in the fact that expressions which are dissimilar, should give the same result. If so, there is a multitude of absurdities, including the gentleman's own "method of interpretation"; for he tells us that $72 \div 3 \times 4 \div 6$ and $72 \times \frac{1}{3} \times 4 \times \frac{1}{6}$ give the same result.

He says his method is "the most natural, the most readily understood and applied." Would not those who say that, in expressions containing the signs $+ \; - \; \times \; \div$, the operations should be performed in the order indicated without any reference to what signs may be used, have a better claim to simplicity and ease of comprehension?

Lastly, he informs us that, in his method, "divisors are considered as fractional multipliers, and the order of the terms may be changed in any manner without changing the result." That is when the signs are all $\times$, it will make no difference in what order

the terms stand. Neither will it when they are all —. This is true in either method of interpretation. If he means that, in the expression "$72 \div 3 \times 4 \div 6$", we can change the order of the last three figures without changing the result, he is mistaken; for, according to his rule, $72 \div 4 \times 3 \div 6 = 9$. $72 \div 3 \times 4 \div 6 = 16$ According to my rule, $72 \div 3 \times 4 \div 6$, $72 \div 4 \times \ \div 6$, or $72 \div 6 \div 4 \times 3 = 1$. He may mean that the sign is to be changed with the figure. If so, it is true in expressions containing $\times$ and $\div$ only. The same is true in my method, if he consider 4×3 as one term, $= 12$; but this is the main point of difference between us. Are the expressions 4×3 and 12 equivalent? I claim that they are, and to prove it I refer him to all authors on mathematics. That ab, $a.b$, and $a \times b$ are the same, I refer him to our algebras. I claim that my rule is superior in this, that the pupil does not have to change or modify it in the higher branches of mathematics.

Findlay, O. F. H. Tufts.

Remarks: A somewhat careful consideration of this subject confirms us in the opinion that Mr. Mendendall's interpretation of arithmetical signs is correct. While it is true that ab and $a \times b$ alike express the product of a and b, we know no mathematical author who teaches that the expressions, $a \div bc$ and $a \div b \times c$, are the same, either in process or result. The first denotes that a is to be divided by the product of b and c; and the second, that the quotient of a divided by b is to be multiplied by c. Mr. Mendenhall's remark respecting a change in the order of the terms, was evidently intended to apply to expressions containing the signs $\times$ $\div$, and the "terms" include the antecedent sign. The remark is correct. $12 \div 3 \times 4$ equals $12 \times 4 \div 3$, since each equals 16. Mr. Tufts' rule makes the first equal 1 and the second equal 16. We have added the above remarks with a view of removing the necessity for a continuance of the discussion in a controversial form. We shall be glad to publish any other view of the subject, if concisely stated.—Editor.

There is no feature of our school system so vital to its success as that which places at the door of every school-room a board of examiners to determine who is qualified to enter there as a teacher and guide of youth. They are the sentries of the school system, and upon their fidelity and efficiency depend, to a great extent, its character and usefulness. No other school officers need a truer conception of their duties, or a more ardent devotion to the cause of education.—White.

Editorial Department.

—— We call the special attention of young teachers to the opening article in this number on school discipline. It will be found eminently suggestive and worthy of careful study. There are thousands of teachers failing in government, who never suspect that the difficulty is in themselves; that better views, an ampler preparation, a more winning manner, and a truer spirit would change disorder to order, and discord to harmony. How many teachers have yet to learn that the awakening of right impulses, motives, and feelings in their pupils, is a more vital and fundamental work than the direct suppression of disorder and misconduct; that that discipline which touches and changes the heart—that develops character—is radical and thorough. We take it that no one should understand Dr. Mayo to disapprove of the authoritative control of children—to teach that they should be educated in a condition of freedom. The child is born under authority to be educated *for* and *into* freedom. Control is one of its birth-rights. Its conduct is the result of restraint or control without and character within, and the stronger and more regal character is made, the less is the necessity of outer control. But character is a growth, and hence its culture is the central, vital duty in the education of the child. The law is, indeed, the divinely appointed schoolmaster to bring man to spiritual liberty, but the law never does its perfect work until it is written *in the heart*. Right moral training is the first duty of the public school.

—— At the last annual teachers' institute of Logan county, Ohio, Judge Wm. Lawrence, of Bellefontaine, delivered an address, ably presenting the necessity of universal education and the urgent need of measures to secure and improve it. The great need of common schools was stated to be "a supply of competent teachers", and this raised the important question, "How can a supply of competent teachers be secured?" Among the means to this end, three were named:

1. The vocation of the teacher must be dignified, with a professional rank which shall command the highest respect and honor.
2. Ample qualifications must be rewarded with better wages, longer terms, and more permanency of employment.
3. The normal school must become an institution as well known, as permanently established, and as highly honored as the highest schools of medicine, law, and divinity

These propositions were briefly considered, and the last was urged as the most efficient means of making our common schools effective. After giving a brief history of normal schools, from 1681 to the present time, Judge Lawrence urged that there should be a sufficient number of normal schools in Ohio, "as permanently established, as highly honored, as liberally supported, and more largely patronized than the schools of medicine, law, and divinity", and he

called upon the teachers and people of the State to see that this is done. He urged that these normal schools should be authorized to confer the degrees of bachelor and master of teaching, "and, if you please, doctor of teaching." When such men as Hon. Rufus King and Judge Lawrence plead for normal schools, the teachers of Ohio should fall into line and move forward to victory.

—— MOST of this year's gubernatorial messages, which have come under our notice, give unusual attention to public education, a fact indicating a growing public interest in the subject. The most noticeable of these educational utterances is found in the message of Governor Geary, of Pennsylvania, who comes out squarely and earnestly for compulsory education, notwithstanding the State School Superintendent has little confidence in the measure. We admire the Governor's impulses and zeal, but we have much greater confidence in Superintendent Wickersham's knowledge of the subject and his practical wisdom in meeting educational needs. The retiring message of Governor Hayes, of Ohio, is also worthy of notice. In his first message, if our memory serves us, he recommended county supervision, but not very heartily and evidently with but little expectation that the recommendation would be heeded. The two subsequent messages contained only brief and general references to school affairs, while his decided retrenchment views were obviously inconsistent with liberal school legislation. These facts give increased weight to the following specific and hearty recommendations in his last message:

"For many years the most eminent teachers and friends of education have urged the necessity of establishing institutions for the instruction of teachers in the principles and duties of their high and honorable calling. A few thousand dollars of the school fund applied every year to this purpose, will, it is believed, make the expenditures for school purposes vastly more beneficial to the State.

"There are serious objections to the present mixed system of school management, by means of township boards and sub-district directors. It is believed that this system ought to give place to the purely township system, in which all of the schools of the township are under the exclusive control of a board of education chosen by the electors of the township. This plan is in conformity with that which has been adopted with satisfactory results in most of our towns, and is sustained by the experience of other States in which the purely township system has been tried.

"In several counties of the State colored children are practically deprived of the privilege of attending public schools. The denial of education to any citizen of Ohio is so manifestly unjust, that it is confidently believed that the Legislature needs only to be informed that such a wrong exists to promptly provide a remedy."

—— SEVERAL of our newspaper exchanges contain statistics of illiteracy in the United States, prepared from advanced sheets of the census by the National Commissioner of Education and embodied in his annual report. We have not seen the Commissioner's report, and, to insure accuracy, will defer the publication of the tables until a copy of the report is received. We are doubtless safe in stating that the whole number of illiterate persons, ten years old and over, is reported as follows: in the Northern States, 1,356,102, of whom 665,985 are of foreign birth; in the Southern States, 4,189,972, of whom only 72,383 are of foreign birth; in the Pacific States and Territories, 114,000 —making a total of 5,660,074 illiterates in the country, of whom 2,763,991

are colored. The number of minor illiterates (between ten and twenty-one) in the Northern States is 307,968; in the Southern States, 1,698,144. Ohio is charged with 47,654 minor illiterates, a larger number than any other Northern State. This fact seems to discredit the accuracy of these statistics, since New York is charged with 241,152 illiterates, Pennsylvania with 222,356, and Ohio with only 173,172. It is difficult to explain the very great difference in the ratios between the minor and adult illiteracy in these several States. The fact is, that statistics of illiteracy are very difficult to collect. It is impossible to secure any uniformity in the application of the government standard, whatever that may be. Persons reported by one census-marshal as illiterate, would be reported by another as literate. Thousands of foreigners who are unable to read English, read their vernacular, and we suspect that a considerable number of the 665,985 foreign illiterates in the Northern States, can read. They either understood the census marshal to ask if they could read *English*, or he was unable to test their ability to read their vernacular. As an offset, pride may have led many to conceal their ignorance by a false report.——We notice that several Ohio papers are using these statistics as an argument for compulsory education. Let us see. In 1870 there were about 676,000 youth in Ohio between ten and twenty-one years of age, and, according to the census, only seven per cent. of these youth could not read and write. Deducting those of foreign birth whose ignorance is not fairly chargeable to Ohio, and we have say five per cent. of illiteracy, which is the per cent. for the adult population, native and foreign. What is the per cent. of illiteracy in countries where the compulsory system has achieved its best results? We recently saw the statement that about four per cent. of the Prussian conscripts could neither read nor sign the pay roll. It is less than one hundred years since Ohio was settled. But we forbear.

—— A DISCUSSION of the subject of compulsory education at the last meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, disclosed the fact that the law of Massachusetts, compelling children to attend school a certain number of weeks each year, is virtually a dead letter, owing to the indisposition of the people to enforce it. Gen. H. K. Oliver, the state constable, charged with the duty of enforcing the law, stated that it is constantly violated, and that even school committees and school superintendents were delinquent in their duty to enforce it. He said that the law had been killed by sheer neglect. "We need a public sentiment that will correct this", said one of the speakers, and the remark reveals the fatal weakness of the compulsory system. It must have *a public sentiment to enforce it*, and this involves a popular appreciation of the dangers of ignorance, which few communities yet possess. What is needed to make the compulsory system successful in this country is a *self-executing* law, and if any one will draft such a measure, we will support it most heartily. Until such a law is devised, the only way to secure universal education in this country is to enlighten public sentiment, to create such a lively public appreciation of school advantages as will bring the children into the schools. Meanwhile the school system ought to be supplemented by agencies which will reclaim the truant and care for the orphan and the neglected. Until these

things can be done, it is useless to look for the enforcement of a general compulsory law. Here we have no power above the people either to make or to execute law.

—— THE superintendent of one of the largest cities in the country writes us, heartily indorsing our January editorial on percentages of school attendance. He says that he is uncompromisingly opposed to the western rule for finding the "average number belonging", and to its use as a basis of computing the per cent. of attendance. "A pupil either belongs to a school or he does not belong to it. If he belongs, his name is on the roll; if he does not belong, his name is not on the roll—and this is the whole story." He thinks that school statistics should represent the truth, and that they should be so made out as to prevent unjust comparisons. The present want of uniformity affords any newspaper writer, so disposed, an opportunity to compare the percentages of attendance in eastern and western cities, to the injury of the former. Turning to the reports, he finds the per cent. in one case as high as 95 and in the other as low as 80, and, without stopping to inquire whether the percentages are computed on the same basis, he "pitches in generally" respecting the bad management of the city schools in the East. Our correspondent concludes his letter with an indorsement of the *monthly enrollment* as a basis for computing percentages of attendance. The letter contains personal references, and hence we do not take the liberty to publish it.

THE SALARY QUESTION.

The *Illinois Teacher* for January contains a contribution which discusses the question of "Sex and Pay" from the stand-point of a "Married Woman." The writer urges that married men ought to receive more pay as teachers than single women, inasmuch as the salary of a married man is really the salary of two persons, himself and wife. To show the injustice of equal pay, she takes the supposed case of two teachers, a man and a woman, who receive $1000 each. They marry, and the woman, assuming the duties of wife and mother, leaves the school-room. The income of the two is thus reduced to $1000, that is, each is actually put on *half pay*. The salary which supported the man, when unmarried, is not sufficient to support himself and family, and the alternatives are to live in poverty or seek a more remunerative employment. Her conclusion is, that equal pay for male and female teachers means *half* pay for the teacher's wife; and she feelingly asks, Who shall be most blessed, the married or the unmarried women?

This view of the salary question is based on the supposition that equal pay will reduce the salaries of male teachers to the wages which will command the services of single women. This will depend on woman's ability to fill man's place as a teacher in our schools. If it be found that the positions now occupied by men can be as efficiently filled by women, the "market value" of

teaching will be fixed at the rate which will command the services of competent women; and, since nearly all female teachers are unmarried, they can afford and will be ready to teach for less pay than married men.

But can the work of teaching in public schools be wholly committed to woman? The answer to this question does not depend solely or chiefly on the comparative natural ability of men and women as teachers. Among the other important facts to be considered is marriage. With few exceptions, all women wish and expect to marry, and *this is right.* No salary will or should induce a woman to remain unmarried when she is loved by a man whose love she reciprocates. Nine-tenths of the female teachers in our schools marry before they have taught five years, and their marriage, as a general rule, involves a retirement from the teacher's office. Hence but few women will ever make teaching a life business—a profession; and this is the great difficulty which besets the advancement of teaching to the rank of a profession. The exclusive employment of women as teachers would commit school instruction largely and hopelessly to temporary and inexperienced teachers.

It is true that this evil may be partially offset by making special professional preparation a condition of admission to the teacher's position, and by subjecting school instruction to thorough professional supervision. But how are these conditions to be met without a considerable number of professional teachers in our schools? The teacher's office necessarily commands both normal training and supervision; for, without actual experience in teaching, no person can be qualified for the position of normal instructor or superintendent. These positions should always be filled by professional teachers—not by mere theorists. American teaching must be directed and vitalized by those who have studied its principles and methods in the light of personal experience in the school room.

This leads to the vital question, Can the women of the country be depended upon to supply our schools with competent professional teachers, and also to fill the office of normal instructor and superintendent? The fact that woman holds the teacher's office by so uncertain a tenure, is the sufficient answer. So long as not more than one female teacher in ten makes teaching a profession, there will be a place and demand for male teachers in our schools. They, reinforced by the few noble women who are called to a like life consecration, must form the "regular service." To exclude men from the army of teachers is to depend chiefly upon temporary volunteers whose rapidly thinning ranks are filled by raw recruits. One great need of American schools is a largely increased number of professional teachers—teachers who devote their acquirements, their talents, their energies, their life to this grand art and interest. Teaching needs to be ennobled by higher culture and riper experience, and it needs the direction of those having a clearer insight into its principles and methods. To this end man must stand by the side of woman in our schools, and such a policy must be adopted as will secure and retain his services.

There are other considerations which forbid the exclusion of men from the teacher's office. Children need to be educated under the joint influence of man and woman. Woman has the earlier and more important place, but the child also needs to feel the impulse and strength of manhood. In school life

s well as in the family, children need to come in close contact with the mind nd heart of man. This view was so forcibly stated by Dr. Mayo, in his late ldress before the Ohio Teachers' Association, that we quote most of the aragraph:

"The earlier years of childhood are given by God to the charge of woman; for she an best tempt forth into character those faculties of affection, faith, imagination, nd observation, which are the foundation alike of manhood and womanhood. But, s the child goes on, it needs constant contact with the mind of man to awaken ose reasoning, administrative, and practical qualities, without which society be-omes a slush of sentimental incapacity. Woman herself is the divine force; she so because always in contact with man, and she naturally finds her sphere by orking at his side. To banish man from our school-rooms and substitute woman the chief places of authority, is to go in the face of all human experience. A amily brought up by a fond mother and a circle of affectionate maiden aunts, is not o apt to come out well as when a good father and mother unite to control the home. school is best managed by a fair and harmonious co-operation of masculine and eminine ability, touching childhood at every point; and although woman may come o the exercise of suffrage in some future condition of American affairs, still in the resent order of society the character of the American boy must be developed best y a proportioned discipline under the class that providentially holds the great re-ponsibility of American business and government. Pay woman well for all she an well do in the school-room, but do not dispense with man."

There is another view which gives man an important place in public schools. The temporary service of female teachers and their want of experience in directing public movements and enterprises, unfit them, as a class, for those general efforts needed to influence public sentiment and secure necessary improvements in school legislation and management. Woman can aid man in this work, but, until society is radically changed, she can not be an aggressive and competent leader. But all experience shows that teachers must be the leaders in school reform and improvement, and the stronger the profession is in character, culture, professional experience, and social influence, the more rapid and permanent is educational progress.

Having seen that man has a place and a mission as a teacher, the inquiry arises, *How* can educated, competent men be induced to make teaching a life business—a profession? There is, as it seems to us, but one answer to this question. The important positions in our schools, which, all things considered, men can fill better than women, should command a salary sufficient to support a man having a family. To grade the salaries of these positions down to the necessities of unmarried teachers, is to commit school instruction to women and to young men who make teaching a stepping-stone to some other employment. Such a policy will drive married men from the profession, if such it can be called. Our schools can only secure and retain professional ability *by paying for it.* So long as inexperience is paid as well as experience, our schools will be largely in the hands of inexperienced teachers. All positions which woman can fill as well as man should be open to her, and when she brings to the same or a like position as high professional ability, experience, skill, culture, influence, and probable permanency as man, she should have equal pay. The basis of equal pay must be broader than the work done in the school room. The worth of a teacher must also be estimated in his relation to the general interests of the schools and to the cause of education. A teacher may do his work skillfully in the school room and be almost a cipher out of it. The teacher's probable permanency is also an important matter. The schools

can not afford to pay teachers whose connection with the profession is to close in one or two years, as liberally as those who are following teaching as a life work. Other things being nearly equal, permanent teachers should receive the highest salary. Professional teachers should hold the leading positions in our schools, and they should not be displaced by those who are expecting to leave the school-room at the first desirable opportunity. In no other way can the public schools of the country be supplied with an influential and successful corps of teachers.

It is proper that the great majority of teachers should be women. Woman is specially fitted to be the teacher of little children, and the primary school is her undisputed domain. There she is man's superior, and when education, professional preparation, and experience are equal, she is man's peer in the middle and, in exceptional cases, in the upper grades of teaching. In all of these positions she should be so well paid as to justify an ample preparation and to enable her to meet fully the demands of her position. The female teachers of the country are, as a class, not half paid. There should be no discrimination in the pay of men who are teaching temporarily, and women who are competent to do the same work as well; and when a woman attains to the rank of a permanent professional teacher, and fills a leading position in the schools as well, all things considered, as a professional male teacher, she should have equal pay. But female teachers of this rank are few in number, for reasons already given, and they must constitute a small minority in the "regular service"—the corps of true professional teachers.

It may be true that the majority of the male teachers employed in our schools are quite as temporary in their service as the female teachers who occupy like positions, and the reason is obvious. The salaries paid men for teaching do not justify their remaining in the business. The positions which only professional teachers *should* fill, are improperly thrown open to temporary and inexperienced teachers, and the salaries are graded down to their needs. Non-professional teachers underbid the professsional, and crowd them out of the schools. Remove the cause, and the effect will disappear. Let professional teachers be recognized and paid; let fresh college graduates and other "apprentice" teachers be kept out of their positions, and there will soon be no lack of permanency in the comparatively small number of male teachers needed in the schools. An increasing number of educated men will make teaching a life work, and the schools will be improved and elevated by their labor and influence.

In the ungraded schools of country districts, the general policy of paying male and female teachers equal wages is doubtless the true one, and it needs little explanation. These schools are attended by small children as well as youth, and female teachers are, as a class, quite as successful as men. The effect of marriage in shortening their service and experience as teachers is nearly, if not quite, offset by the fact that few ungraded schools afford teachers constant and regular employment, and hence but few men can make teaching a life work. Until the length of the sessions of these schools is much increased, teachers must divide the year between two kinds of labor. Male teachers usually divide it between the school and the farm, the latter taking the

larger share. The above facts show that the male teachers in ungraded schools have no special advantage over the female, either in permanency or adaptation to the work. If the two sexes receive equal pay, women can afford to bring to the teacher's position higher qualifications and a fuller preparation than men, and *if* their pay is only graded *up* to the pay of men, and not the reverse, the schools will be supplied with better teachers. The paying of inexperienced girls the same wages as are paid experienced male teachers, is neither just nor wise.

We are aware that the above views lack that dash of cheap gallantry, which often brings applause, but we believe them to be based on facts and experience, and to be true to the interests of public education as well as just to woman. What the public schools of this country imperatively need is better instruction and direction, and these needs can only be met through *better qualified teachers.* As a temporary expediency, the instruction of a system of schools may be entirely committed to women; but, as a settled policy, such a course can but result in serious loss. At best the great majority of American teachers will be temporary, and this fact shows the vital importance of normal training. It is only by putting school instruction and discipline under the direction and inspiration of professional teachers and then making special preparation the condition of admission to the teacher's office, that American schools can attain possible high success.

WHAT THE COURTS SAY.

The Supreme Court of Iowa has decided that boards of education have the authority to make punctual and regular attendance at school a condition of membership. It holds that a rule requiring regular attendance is for the good of the pupil and the school, and that it secures the very object for which public schools are established. Tardiness is held to be an injury to the punctual pupils, and the court adds:

"The good of the whole school can not be sacrificed for the advantage of one pupil who happens to have an unreasonable father; and, as the law now is, no other means can be devised for enforcing regular and prompt attendance than the penalty of expulsion."

This decision is in harmony with all the judicial decisions which have come under our notice in eleven years of editorial experience. The right of school authorities to make rules to secure regular attendance, to prescribe the studies to be pursued by pupils, and to enforce obedience to these regulations by suspension or expulsion, has not been denied in a single case. The right of the teacher to inflict reasonable corporal punishment upon a pupil has also been uniformly affirmed.

But while the law thus justifies expulsion and corporal punishment, we think that school boards and teachers should seldom make either a prescribed penalty for the violation of a school regulation. We doubt the necessity of a rule expelling pupils for tardiness.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of this journal due him, we always remail it.

—— We wrote our last editorial item for the January number on the 18th of December, and we expected that it would be ready to mail as early as the 26th. In our absence several unanticipated hindrances occurred, and the issue of the number was delayed some ten days—much to our annoyance.

—— A year ago one of our educational exchanges made a point of the fact that it did not parade a formidable list of leading educators as contributors—it had no such contributors to parade—and another journal made a special merit of the fact that its pages were filled with matter contributed exclusively by teachers of its own State. We have waited only a twelve-month to see the names of several prominent educationists named in the prospectus of the first journal, though they have not yet written for it, and the January number of the second journal contains three contributions by leading teachers in other States, two of whom receive high and merited editorial compliment, and each of their articles is announced as one of a series. We all learn by experience, and some of us learn that we have made a boast of a weakness.

Personal.—John S. Hart, LL.D., late Principal of the New Jersey State Normal School, has been elected Professor of Rhetoric and the English Language and Literature in Princeton College, N. J. Prof. Hart graduated at Princeton with the highest honors, and was, for several years, adjunct professor of Greek.——Rev. W. H. Wynn, Deputy State School Superintendent of Iowa, has been appointed professor of English Literature and chaplain in the Iowa State Agricultural College, which has $700,000 assets. Hon. A. S. Welch is president of the institution.——Albert H. Tuttle, of Cleveland, is instructor in the use of the microscope at Harvard University. His appointment has attracted attention in England where no such department has yet been organized. We rejoice in the success of our former pupil.—— Allen Whitman has been obliged by ill health to resign the position of teacher of Latin and Greek in the Cleveland Central High School.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE DIFFERENT STATES.

Ohio.—The Executive Committee of the Ohio Teachers' Association met at the School Commissioner's office Dec. 28th, and prepared a programme for the next meeting, which is to be held July 3d and 4th, at Put-in-Bay Island, provided satisfactory arrangements can be made. If the Put-in-Bay arrangements are not satisfactory, the meeting will be held at Mansfield. The Ohio Superintendents' Association will meet on the 2d of July.

—— The colored people in various sections of the State are demanding school privileges, and, where separate schools are not provided for them, they are rightly demanding admission to the public schools. This is bitterly opposed in many districts, the colored children are abused, and, in one or two instances, the schools have been closed. In several cases the lower courts have been resorted to but with different results. The question has finally been brought before the Supreme Court by a petition for a writ of mandamus to compel the school directors in Norwich township, Franklin county, to admit colored youth to all the school rights and privileges enjoyed by white youth. The school law provides for a separate school for colored

youth "when the whole number, by enumeration, exceeds twenty, and when such schools will afford them, as far as practicable, the advantages and privileges of a common school education." When the number of colored children is *less* than twenty, the board is required to set apart and expend each year their pro rata share of the school funds for their education. *But how?* This provision has been a disgraceful fraud from its first enactment; for, under a show of justice, it has robbed colored youth of all school privileges. When a separate school for colored youth is not established and maintained, the *only* way in which they can be provided with school advantages is to admit them to the public schools, and this is done in hundreds of school districts in the State.

COLUMBUS.—On the recommendation of Supt. Stevenson, the board of education has appointed a visiting committee of several leading citizens for each of the schools of the city. The members of the several committees are requested to visit the assigned schools, either individually or in company, as often during the term as may be convenient, and to attend in a body the examinations to be held the third week of March. At the close of the examinations each committee is expected to make a written report to the board on the condition of the buildings, the discipline of the schools, the progress of the pupils, and the competency of the teachers, with such recommendations for the improvement of the schools as may be deemed best. It was feared by the editor of one of the Columbus papers that the committees might not know how to discharge the duties committed to them, and so he kindly volunteered nearly a column of suggestions and instructions. There can now be no failure from a want of information. The richest suggestion submitted is, that the classes should not be examined on the technical knowledge of the text-books studied, and it is broadly hinted that the "quondam schoolmasters" on the committees should take a back seat, and let the examinations be conducted by "intelligent and practical men, who are untrammeled by the routine and ruts of the profession." What would a certain class of men do if they did not have an opportunity to sneer at teachers? The appointment of visiting committees has been long and successfully tried at Norwalk, and years ago we taught under the inspection of such committees at Cleveland. We also had their assistance when we were a superintendent of city schools. The plan is a good one.——The board of education has voted to pay the colored teachers the same salary as the white teachers employed in like grades of school.

OHIO CENTRAL NORMAL SCHOOL.—The second term of this institution opened January second, with an attendance of forty students. The principals have undertaken the work of building up a purely normal school of a high order, and, though the beginnings are small, they are encouraging. The high character of the students and the good wishes of the teachers of the State are an earnest of ultimate success. It would, of course, be easy to collect a large number of miscellaneous students, but this would be inconsistent with the work of the institution, which is the professional instruction and training of teachers. It is neither a high school nor an academy. The normal institute held at the institution the last week in December, was well conducted. Evening addresses were given by School Commissioner Harvey and Capt. Mitchell, both to good houses.

MARYLAND.—The report of M. A. Newell, President of the Board of State School Commissioners, for 1871 shows that the public school system is making encouraging progress. The whole number of schools reported, not including Baltimore, is 1,390; number of pupils enrolled, 80,829; average number in daily attendance, 36,949; number of teachers employed, 1,691 (men, 957; women, 724); average number of months schools were in session, 9.2 months (good); amount of money received from

the State, $354,644.83; amount received from county taxation, $302,640.80; amount paid teachers, $5 0,155.06; for building, furnishing, and repairing school-houses, $75,015.32; for books and stationery, $55,719.42; for supervision, $34,219.60; for colored schools, $4,610.40 (a mere pittance); for other expenses, $47,090.89—making a total expenditure for 1871 of $727,111.69. The above statistics do not include the city of Baltimore, which enrolled in its schools 34,854 pupils, and paid $284,570.80 for teachers' salaries; $29,060.23 for books and stationery, and $72,396.78 for other expenses — making the total school expenditures of the city $386,027.81. The city supported a system of colored schools at an expense of $30,000. The Howard Normal School for the education of colored teachers occupies a spacious and comfortable building and is now attended by over 200 students. It has three departments, normal, grammar, and model, and is in charge of a principal and three assistants. The school is supported by private subscriptions and tuition fees ($10 to $15 a year).

At the annual meeting of the School Commissioners of Maryland, held Nov. 29th, 1871, it was recommended that the school law be so amended as to provide for: 1. A county tax of fifteen cents on the hundred dollars, at the discretion of the county boards of school commissioners, instead of ten cents as at present allowed. 2. The appointment of teachers to be given to the county boards of school commissioners, instead of the local boards, as at present. 3. Some further provision for the gradual education of the colored children of the State. 4. The building of a suitable house for the State Normal School. 5. The transfer of the academic donations to the several boards of county school commissioners for the purpose of establishing and maintaining a high school in each county. These suggestions are indorsed by the State Board and their importance is ably presented by President Newell. He earnestly urges the making of ample provision for the education of colored youth. The State Normal School enrolled last year 163 students, 51 being from Baltimore. Eleven of these students graduated in May, 41 are teaching under certificates, and 49 are continuing their preparation. The number of graduates now teaching in the State is about 200. The school greatly needs a new building.

GEORGIA.—The first teachers' institute ever held in Georgia was held at Atlanta the second week of January. It was conducted by Supt. Mallon, of Atlanta, who was assisted in the instruction by Prof. W. M. James, Prof. V. T. Barnwell, Mr. O. Rockwell, Miss Jennie Clayton, Mrs. McKeon, Mrs. Goodman, and others. Day lectures were given by Prof. G. J. Orr, Dr. S. H. Stout, and Rev. H. Bakum, of Atlanta, and evening lectures by Prof. S. P. Sanford, of Mercer University, Macon, Dr. A. P. Lipscomb, chancellor of the University of Georgia, Prof. W. Leroy Brown, and Rev. Dr. Wills. There was an attendance of about 50 teachers, some 30 of whom were the teachers elect in the Atlanta schools, which will open on the 29th of January. The institute was favored with the attendance of a goodly number of regular visitors, who were much interested in the exercises. Our correspondent reports the institute "a great success."——Prof. G. J. Orr, of Oglethorpe University, has been appointed State School Commissioner, in place of Gen. Lewis resigned. Prof. Orr is a leading member of the Georgia Teachers' Association, and an earnest friend of public schools. He is the author of the able and liberal memorial to the General Assembly, to which we alluded last month.

TENNESSEE.—The school intelligence from this State is conflicting. One writer says, "The educational outlook is dark and unpropitious. Free schools have been actually legislated out of the State, and public opinion is apparently fast settling down against their establishment." On the contrary, *Mortons' Monthly* states that "Schools are being organized in all the counties and much earnestness prevails."

We are certainly justified in saying that the present indications are encouraging. A bill to reorganize the State School Department was recently pending in the legislature, and we judge from a remark in the *Nashville Banner* that there is now a State Superintendent. At all events the officers of the State Teachers' Association are alive and mean business. They recently applied to Dr. Sears, agent of the Peabody Fund, for an appropriation of $1500 to put an agent into the field to arouse the counties and secure the establishing of the free-school system. Dr. Sears made the appropriation, as requested, and the Association has chosen Col. J. B. Killebrew to undertake the work. The selection is doubtless a good one, and if the State Superintendent and the Association Agent co-operate, as is expected, the opposition to free-schools will have lively times. The Association proposes to issue addresses and memorials to put the cause strongly before the people. We hope that the movement may be completely successful.

MASSACHUSETTS.—George A. Walton, of Westfield, is employed the present winter by the State Board of Education as a special agent to visit the towns west of the Connecticut River, inquire into the condition of the schools, confer with teachers and committees, and lecture upon subjects connected with education. He recently addressed the Holyoke Teachers' Association giving the results of his observations in some of the schools visited, dwelling chiefly upon the faults observed in the teaching of reading.——The new high-school building of Worcester, recently dedicated, cost $170,000.——The salaries of the principals of the grammar schools of Springfield have been increased to $2,000.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Since the editing of our last number, we have attended two more fine institutes in the Keystone State—in Union and Washington counties. We have seldom instructed more attentive and appreciative teachers, and the other evidences of school progress in each county were gratifying. The teachers of Washington county presented Supt. Fee with an elegant gold watch and chain. On our return from Union county, we spent a few hours in the State School Department at Harrisburg. It occupies a commodious and very pleasant suit of rooms, and its powers and duties are ample and important. We believe that it is the best organized State School Department in the country. Superintendent Wickersham now receives the well-earned salary of $3,500. He is assisted by a deputy, two inspectors of soldiers' orphan schools, five clerks, and a messenger. He asks for another deputy.

NEBRASKA.—This young State is making rapid progress in the establishment of its public school system. It has a large school fund and, what is better, a people that appreciate the importance of good schools. The State Normal School is in a prosperous condition.——Ashland has just completed one of the finest school buildings in the State, built at a cost of $15,000. It is handsomely finished and furnished. The schools are in charge of Mr. A. Nichols.——R. H. Kinney, of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, has been elected superintendent of the Nebraska institution.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The winter term of the West Liberty Normal School opened with sixty students. The Saturday institute is well attended not only by the students but also by teachers and citizens in the vicinity. The evening sessions are sometimes attended by nearly two hundred persons. Some twenty of the normal students are teaching this winter.——Supt. J. C. Farris reports that the schools in Ohio county are making good progress.

BROOKE COUNTY.—A county teachers' association was organized in October last, and nearly all the teachers of the county are now members. Several interesting

and profitable meetings have been held. J. W. Hough, the county superintendent, is president. Mr. Hough is also principal of the Bethany schools, which now enroll about 150 pupils. He has two assistants. The public schools of Wellsburg enroll about 325 pupils and are making good progress. They are in charge of J. W. Cuppy, who has five assistants.

WHEELING.—The proposition to establish a high school is meeting with very unwise opposition and from unexpected sources. At the December meeting of the teachers' association, Prof. Boyd, principal of one of the ward schools, strongly opposed (if correctly reported by the papers) both supervision and high schools—two agencies approved alike by reason and experience and now well nigh universally adopted by the cities and towns of the country. Prof. Boyd's remarks respecting the Cleveland schools must be incorrectly reported. He is too intelligent a teacher to make such statements.——Rev. James H. McMechen succeeds Rev. John Hall, resigned, as principal of the Fifth Ward School. Mr. Hall has taken charge of a church in Cleveland, O.

BOOK NOTICES.

SECOND BOOK ON ANALYTIC ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND HYGIENE. Human and Comparative. By CALVIN CUTTER, A.M., M.D. 318 pp. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

A TREATISE ON PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE, for Educational Institutions and General Readers. By JOSEPH C. HUTCHINSON, M.D. 270 pp. New York: Clark & Maynard.

ELEMENTS OF THE ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND HYGIENE OF THE HUMAN SYSTEM. By JUSTIN R. LOOMIS, LL.D. Revised Edition. 254 pp. New York: Sheldon & Co.

This "Second Book" is a new work by Dr. Cutter whose former text-book on Anatomy and Physiology is well known. It retains the excellencies and peculiarities of the author's first work. It contains a vast amount of valuable information, and most of the hygienic part is important. The comparative anatomy and physiology are of great value, and give the student broader views of the whole subject. The work is more technical than would be proper if it were not a "Second Book", which implies that a first has been studied. If the second is used alone and without preliminary preparation, it will require a good teacher to teach it properly—one who has greater familiarity with the subject than we fear most of our teachers possess. It would require a very wise teacher to interpret the following paragraph on page 220, under the general head of "Ideational Centres": "Every centre of idea is also a centre of *Volitionary* reaction. When an idea acts *directly* downward we call the effect *ideomotor;* but when there is deliberation or reflection delaying the action, and it afterward takes place downward, we call the effect *volitional.*" Is this science or speculation? The work has an excellent glossary.

The "Treatise" by Dr. Hutchinson appears to be a valuable work. It contains in brief compass a large amount of the more important facts in Physiology and Hygiene. The statements are generally clear and capable of easy apprehension, and the general spirit and tone of the work are most excellent. We can safely commend it. The author makes a bad mistake on page 247, when under the head of ACIDS, he makes hydrochloric acid (more properly chlorohydric) and muriatic acid distinct acids. They are the same.

Loomis's "Elements" gives in a compact form the more important facts of the subject. The arrangement is good, and the style of the author is excellent and clear. There is little unnecessary use of technical terms, and any teacher of fair qualifications can use it successfully in school. It is a good, sensible text-book, without nonsense or pretense.

THE AMERICAN NATURALIST: A Popular Illustrated Magazine of Natural History.. Published by the Peabody Academy of Science, Salem, Mass. $4 a year.

This is by far the best of all our magazines of natural history. It is popular and, at the same time, thoroughly scientific. We have heretofore commended it in the very highest terms, and will not now repeat the commendations in detail. We wish it could be circulated everywhere among the teachers of the country. It would give both pleasure and profit. Why may not the teachers in any of our towns where many of them are brought together in graded public schools, form a Natural History Society? Let so many of their summer Saturdays as may be deemed best be devoted to excursions and collection-making, and then let them meet in society to compare notes and discuss the gathered treasures. Mr. Fisher and Miss Waters and Miss Brooks, who have had a delightful excursion along the streams, with Johnny Pike and Willie Fish, their pupils, to do the wading and sweep the net in the pools, bring back their spoils of minnows (mayhap an Etheostoma variegata with colors of red and blue as bright as the plumage of a bird), or turtles or what not; Mr. Bush with Miss Greenleaf and Miss Beach bring their treasures of flowers and ferns; Mr. Gunning and Mr. Jaeger, the German teacher, with Miss Jeannie Wren and Miss Sparrow and with troops of children in following, have brought in rare birds from meadow and thicket; Mr. Badger, the old bachelor, who stole off quietly alone, brings in a rare little shrew, and all meet and display their various acquisitions. The American Naturalist is their first book of reference, but every other accessible work on natural history, old or new, is brought into requisition. Why should there not be hundreds of just such natural history societies throughout the land? In Great Britain there are many quite similar clubs, although perhaps not often confined to teachers. Our American teachers, men and women, are quite too careworn and overworked, and nothing would better give relaxation and health and, at the same time, intellectual stimulus than such natural history clubs. Let hundreds of teachers subscribe for the American Naturalist, and thus be ready for the field excursions when the spring with its flowers and birds returns. E. B. A.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT. By ALFRED HOLBROOK, Principal of Normal School, Lebanon, Ohio, and Author of "Normal Methods of Teaching." Lebanon: Josiah Holbrook.

This volume contains twenty-one brief and familiar lectures, delivered by Prof. Holbrook to the students of the National Normal School. The first five lectures treat of the qualifications of teachers—common sense, knowledge of the branches, teaching power, governing power, and love of the work; the sixth and seventh treat of school difficulties; the eighth of self-difficulties; the ninth of the human constitution; the tenth of the formation of habits; the eleventh and twelfth of class management; the thirteenth and fourteenth of school organization; the fifteenth of methods of inciting to diligence and order; the sixteenth of incentives; the seventeenth of penalties; the eighteenth of strategy and tactics; and the concluding three of object teaching. The characteristic principles of the system embodied in these lectures are that study and good order should not be secured by compulsion; that the exercises of the school should be made so attractive and study so exciting that good conduct and severe application will be the choice of every pupil; and that, to this end, tact and strategy—"management"—should take the place of coercion and punishment. In theory the system wholly discards both law and force, but, when the theory fails in practice, it may be supplemented by penalties as explained in the seventeenth lecture—a common-sense expedient, though logically subversive of the theory. But we are not disposed to criticise since most teachers depend too much upon law and force, which should certainly have but a small space in school discipline. What our teachers as a class most need to learn

is how incite their pupils to study and good conduct—how to make tact, training, and influence more effective. These lectures are extreme in doctrine and practice, but they point out many errors and abuses and they present many valuable plans and expedients. Those devoted to methods suggest numerous artifices which show the tact and skill of the true strategist. They are somewhat marred we think by too sweeping condemnations of other institutions, especially colleges which are criticised without mercy, if with justice.

"My First Drawing Book", for Slate Exercises. Philadelphia: J. A. Bancroft & Co.

This little work is designed for instruction in drawing on the slate, embracing straight and curved lines, capital and script letters, numerals, familiar objects, animals, etc,. with full page of instruction opposite each plate, for pupil and teacher. It is a well known fact, that American children are sadly deficient in off-hand drawing, sketching, lettering, etc., and generally remain so through life. This book is intended to remedy this by systematic practice while the fingers are easy to train and during the spare moments usually lost in the primary and intermediate schools. It is beautifully printed, showing the model in white, and is bound durably and in a handsome and attractive manner.

Wilson, Hinkle & Co.'s Illustrated and Descriptive Catalogue is pronounced by several of our exchanges, east and west, to be the most beautiful and complete thing of the kind that has come to their table. The pages of illustrations, taken from their more recent works, show that these enterprising publishers have fine taste as well as unsurpassed energy. These illustrations are the best results of American art. The firm has opened a branch house in New York—No. 28 Bond St.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

Geological Survey of Ohio: Report of Progress in 1870. 8vo. 568 pp. Accompanied with Maps of Grouped Sections, Second Geological District. Nevins & Myers, State Printers, Columbus, Ohio.

The Parser's Manual: Embracing Classified Examples in Nearly Every Variety of English Construction. By John Williams, A.M. 12mo. 264 pp. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati and New York.

Pinneo's Guide to Composition: A Series of Practical Lessons. By T. S. Pinneo, A.M., M.D. 12 mo. 162 pp. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati & New York.

Independent Sixth Reader. By J. Madison Watson, Author of National Readers, etc. 12 mo. 456 pp. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York and Chicago. 1872.

The Comprehensive Speaker. By Henry T. Coates. 12 mo. 672 pp. Porter & Coates, Philadelphia.

Fowler's English Grammar. Enlarged. To which is added March's Method of the Philological Study of the English Language. By William Chauncey Fowler, LL.D. 12 mo. 500 pp. Harper & Brothers, New York.

Hotze's First Lessons in Physics. Revised Edition. 12 mo. 175 pp. Hendricks & Chittenden, St. Louis.

My First Drawing-Book. By John Collins. 12 mo. 32 pp. J. A. Bancroft & Co., Philadelphia.

Cooley's Natural Philosophy. 149 Illustrations. By Le Roy C. Cooley, A.M. 12 mo. 315 pp. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

June on the Miami, and Other Poems. By W. H. Venable. 12 mo. 122 pp. R. W. Carroll & Co.. Cincinnati.

Schools and Schoolmasters. From the Writings of Charles Dickens. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York and Chicago.

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SHALL GEOGRAPHY BE BANISHED FROM OUR COMMON SCHOOLS?

BY J. B. BITTINGER, SEWICKLEY, PA.

I do not know that I would differ so much from Mr. Taylor's views, in his article in the November number on "The Geography Question", if they were stated with all the qualifications which lie in his own mind; but looking simply at what he has written, they seem extreme, and are expressed in terms which show more zeal than reflection. But, perhaps, as you remarked editorially, "they may arrest attention, and secure a better understanding of the uses and advantages of this study." What I shall say, therefore, will look more to the general interests of the science of geography, and the importance of the study, than to anything that Mr. Taylor has said.

Mr. Taylor gives five reasons why geography should be "banished" from our common schools. *First*, "because children can not master geography." Now the first question that arises is, What does he mean by geography? Is it mathematical, astronomical, descriptive, political, or physical geography? He mentions *mathematical geography* as being more difficult than the syntax of French or Latin, so that it would appear as if that were the study he would exclude; but then, further on, he admits that *descriptive geography* might be studied in our schools with advantage to those who do not expect to go through college and "for convenience in general reading"; but then again, in

another place, he opposes its study in the common school, "because, as a science, it is suited only to advanced scholars." If he lays stress on the word "master" in his first objection, then his argument proves too much, for the child can not *master* orthography any more than geography. A child is not expected to master any branch taught in the common school, but only so much as will put it in the way of mastering it, or, at least, so much as may be turned to a good, practical account. Newton's Principia has its roots in the ten digits and the multiplication table; but shall we banish numeration, addition, and subtraction from the common school because children can not master the Principia, and the Mecanique Celeste?

The *next* objection is, that "the study of geography, as now taught, weakens the memory." This objection is not pertinent to the question. It may be taught disproportionately or inadequately, but that is an objection not to the study or utility of geography, but to the manner of teaching it. We believe that here we are fully in accord with Mr. Taylor; and our book-makers and book-teachers have much to answer for, for marring, if not murdering, the memories of children. But I do not think that geography as a study is more guilty than the catechism. Stuffing the mind through the memory alone, whether the filling be the disconnected facts of language or geography, is equally injurious.

A *third* reason for banishing geography from its place in our common schools is, "because it is more difficult than Latin or French or German." This is an argument for putting the study of these languages before geography, but certainly not for putting geography out of doors. "The syntax of French" may not be as difficult as *mathematical geography*, and yet, as Mr. Taylor admits, "some parts of geography may be clearly understood by children." Now why compare "the syntax of the French" with mathematical geography—confessedly the most difficult part of the science? The mathematics of geography need not, should not, and, by a competent teacher, never are taught first. Descriptive geography is as easy as "declension", much more interesting than the paradigm of a Greek verb, and of more practical use to the patrons of the common school than the laws of "scanning."

A subsidiary objection is the difficult "vocabulary of geography." This is true, if you think only of a geographical gazetteer, and fix your pupil's mind on the most foreign and out-of-

the-way names, as Mr. Taylor seems to have done, when from "the more than ten thousand names" tabulated in Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, he could only remember "Michilimackinac, Guancavelica, Ekaterinoslav, Reichelsheim." We wonder how he could remember these when Ohio, Columbus, Washington, and London seem so much easier. But is Michilimackinac any harder to spell, pronounce, or remember than *unvernuenftlichkeit*, *vraisemblance*, and ten thousand others? Does Mr. Taylor really think that these words from the German and French prove geography to be more difficult than these languages? Well, if my logic does not seem to him to be very good, he must pardon me for saying that it is as good as his—indeed, I made my shoe over his last.

In the *fourth* place, geography should be banished from our common schools, "because its study consumes so much precious time." If geography is an "unimportant study", if, for developing all the mental powers and properly informing the mind, geography is of no practical value", if "it is almost wholly disjoined from all the studies of a higher education", then certainly it should be banished (not too strong a word here) not only "because it consumes so much precious time", but because it is utterly valueless—yet geography deals in facts and names, and therefore cultivates the memory. It deals in ideas of cause and effect, and hence develops the understanding and the reasoning faculties. It abounds in pictures, and so stimulates the imagination. It can only be studied by map-drawing, and thus educates the eye to form and size, and the hand to skill. It forms the theatre of history, and thereby lays the foundation for the domain of fact as opposed to fiction. Take geography out of history, and it becomes romance.

Having declared "that geography is almost wholly disjoined from all the studies of a *higher education*", Mr. Taylor gives as a *fifth* reason for banishing it from the schools, "that, as a science, *it is suited only to advanced scholars.*" No connection with the *higher studies*, and yet only suited to *advanced* scholars! "Disjoined from the studies of a higher education", and yet after "geometry, trigonometry, astronomy, mineralogy, geology, botany, ethnology, and natural history, as preliminary studies, have been mastered, one can approach the study of geography, fully prepared to understand and enjoy it"—and "then it will require but a single term of school", Mr. Taylor thinks, "to complete it." Think of Arnold Guyot, Mrs. Somerville, and Karl Ritter

completing the science of geography in a single school term! They spent their lives on it, and did not get through. Strabo began the study of geography at eighty-three, but if we must master all the sciences which Mr. Taylor has enumerated above, before we can enter on geography, we shall not only be out of the common school, but out of the world, and well on, most of us, in eternity.

The latter part of Mr. Taylor's paper gives reasons why Latin and Greek, French and German, should supersede geography. So far as these arguments are valid, they do not show that geography should be *banished* from the school, but only that it should be postponed in the course. It is very true, as Mr. Taylor says, "childhood is the time to acquire language." If, however, he means that it is the most favorable time to acquire language, the saying is a thread-bare truism; but if he means that it is more favorable for acquiring linguistic than for acquiring any other kind of knowledge, it is an unproved assertion. So much of a language as a child learns to speak at three years of age, is no nearer to the mastery of the science of its mother tongue than its knowledge of the rooms in its mother's house is to the science of geography. As to such a knowledge of Greek and Latin that you may not only dispense with translations, but despise them,—it is not acquired in the common school, nor by means of a grammar and dictionary anywhere else. Porson, the greatest of English Hellenists, complained that he never could read Greek as he read his morning paper.

Mr. Taylor asks in a rather unseemly tone, considering that Pope, Cowper, Chapman, Mumford, Derby, and Bryant have translated Homer, "Who reads translations of Homer and Virgil?" It were a thousand to one easier to count those who *can* read them in the original.

When Mr. Taylor allows himself to say in a journal intended for teachers, and in the interest of education, that "geography is a heterogeneous mass of materials, without natural arrangement or cohesion, which never can be associated into a single compact entirety", he either uses words without any definite meaning, or insults the intelligence of all scientific men and makes God the author of a chaos instead of a cosmos. The facts of geography are as real as the facts of astronomy, and they are as amenable to laws. "In the beginning God created the heaven *and* the earth."

As part of a common-school education, geography is far more

important than any foreign language. French and German are useful as specialties, but geography is of general utility. The common school is not a professional school. It looks to preparing all its pupils for the average and general duties of the citizen. It does not seek to fit a boy for a foreign embassy, nor for a professor of languages. It leaves those things for the comparatively few who may need them, to professional schools. Every boy and girl should be taught to read intelligibly, write intelligently and legibly, and to cast up accounts accurately. These lay the foundation for future acquisitions. These instruments for getting and communicating knowledge the State furnishes as due to all its citizens. To go beyond these, the nearest study and the most valuable for general intelligence is geography. This is the science that opens a child's way out from his own town and county. This makes the outside world intelligible and real to him. Its agriculture, manufactures, and trade; its climate, soil, and productions; its travel, commerce, politics, and history come into the light through this knowledge. Where such a knowledge of French and German, Greek and Latin, as could be acquired in the common school, would meet the wants of one man, the knowledge of the geography taught in the common school would meet the wants and gratify the desires of hundreds of men.

Having said as much as this in opposition to Mr. Taylor's views, I should be most happy to join hands with him in "banishing" from our common schools the careless, inadequate, and dreary way in which geography is too often taught. This is a difficult work, because our present teachers teach as they were taught, and the great majority of them were the victims of just such teaching of geography as Mr. Taylor reprobates. There is an opening through our normal schools. In them, surely, the secret of teaching geography, so that it shall be the handmaid of all intelligent reading, may be communicated.

I would gladly join hands with Mr. Taylor, also, in "banishing" the kinds of text-books on geography in many of our schools. I would "banish" *first* of all the *series set*, a method of book-making better calculated to make money for the publishers than to make students of geography; and in the *second* place, I would "banish" all systems that put *mathematical geography* in the first of the series or volume; and in the *third* place, I would "banish" every geography, whether in series or single, that did not make *physical geography* fundamental to all other kinds of

geography. I am glad to say that it will soon be very easy to carry the last point, as editors and publishers are industriously shifting their works on to this natural and, therefore, scientific basis.

COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Immediately before the friends of education in Pennsylvania, there are several great questions that must be met and settled; among them that concerning *truant, vagrant, and neglected children.* The President of the Board of State Charities, in his last annual report, thus states the question:

"No man who has observed, with any care, the condition of our larger communities, can have failed to notice that there is in them all a considerable per centage of the children who grow up to maturity without the chance of taking pattern from any exemplary life within their range. Whatever ideas they have of the difference between good and evil, are intuitive, and the sanctions of divine and human laws are known to them only to the extent of their own sad experience. The average of social virtue, dignity, and wealth is much reduced by the presence of this debased and debasing ingredient; and it is a problem well worthy of the gravest and most patient thought of philanthropic, political economists, whether anything, and, if anything, what can be done for the rescue of these unfortunates from their ill starred condition, for the protection of the communities which they deteriorate, and for the purity, welfare, and honor of the State, the mother of them all."

It was stated in a previous report that by the school census of Philadelphia, taken in 1868, it was ascertained that 20,534 children in that city, between the ages of six and eighteen, 11,000 of them between the ages of six and twelve, were in attendance at neither public nor private schools. By a similar census of Pittsburg, taken in 1869, it appeared that 3,781 children, between the ages of six and fifteen, were without school advantages of any kind. The carefully taken census of the borough of Pottsville, shows that, in 1870, of 4,427 children in that borough, between the ages of six and twenty-one, 2,214 were out of school, and of 2,080, between the ages of seven and thirteen, 401 were out of school. Several county superintendents have made careful estimates of the degree of absenteeism in their respective counties, and concur in stating that about one *per centum* of the children of proper age never attend school at all, and that some seven or eight *per centum* of them attend so short a time or so irregularly as to derive little advantage therefrom. From such facts it is probable that 75,000 of our youth are growing up in

virtual ignorance. A large majority of this number, it is true, either have acquired or will acquire the ability to read and write a little, but they are sadly deficient in all the nobler qualities that a good education is so well calculated to produce.

These 75,000 neglected children are found in the cellars and garrets, the streets and alleys of our cities and towns, employed in our mines and manufactories, or running wild in country places. Every observer must notice them, and every good man must lament their condition and fear the evils that society must experience from their untutored minds and unrestrained passions.

What becomes of these children thus suffered to grow up in ignorance? Let our houses of refuge answer the question. The total number of children received into the two houses of refuge for the ten years from 1860 to 1870 was 5,189, and their average age was about 13½ years. Of these, 1,941 could neither read nor write; 957 could read but not write; and 2,291 could read and write, but only about 200 of them could read and write well. This ignorance-produced crop of vice and crime, when more fully ripened, is harvested by our jails and penitentiaries.

But ignorance in this country does not only curse society with vice and crime, it *votes;* and a ballot in the hands of an ignorant man is a dangerous weapon. It is fearfully true, that with large masses of ignorant men as voters, no country can long sustain free institutions. Our statesmen can not guard against this evil with too much care. "Eternal vigilance" in this, as well as in all other respects, "is the price of liberty."

To remedy the evil of non-attendance, many persons advocate the enactment of a law compelling children between certain ages to attend school for a certain number of months each year. Such laws, however, have not proven very effective in the countries and States where they are now in force. Prussia has such a law, but the school attendance in Prussia does not embrace a greater percentage of the school-going population than it does in other European countries that have no compulsory law. It is even doubtful whether the percentage of attendance is greater in Prussia than it is in Pennsylvania. Massachusetts has had on her statute books for years, very rigid laws enforcing attendance at her public schools; how effective they are will be shown from the following statements taken from the last report of the Board of Education.

In that report, page 102, it is stated that the "ratio of mean

average attendance for the year to the whole number of persons between five and fifteen is .74." We have no means of determining how many persons there are in Pennsylvania between the ages of five and fifteen, nor how many between those ages attend our schools, as our school statistics are compiled in a different way from that in which they are compiled in Massachusetts; but from the best estimates that can be made, attendance at school seems to be about as good here as there.

Abner J. Phipps, Esq., the agent of the Board of Education, says:

It is a mournful thought that, notwithstanding the very large amount expended for the maintenance of the public schools of our State, so large a proportion of children of school age fail to reap the advantages of this, and grow up in comparative ignorance. It is true we have a compulsory law, with sufficient penalties, if it were enforced, but in many towns it is not only not enforced, but no disposition to enforce it is shown."

Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of the Board of Education, declares, with reference to their compulsory law and the practice under it, that "it is the weakest and least defensible part of our school system."

And Gen. H. K. Oliver, the state constable, one of whose duties it is to see that the state laws concerning education are enforced, puts the case still stronger. The italics are his own. He says:

"Now, we know, indeed, that there is a compulsory statute of the Commonwealth in relation to the schooling of its children, but like a great many other statutes on the books, it is paralytic, effete, dead—killed by sheer neglect. It was never enforced, and never supposed to be anybody's duty to enforce it. In fact, we are inclined to believe that it is not generally known that such a law was ever enacted. *Nobody looks after it, neither town authorities, nor school committees, nor local police, and large cities and many of the towns of the State are swarming with unschooled children, vagabondizing about the streets and growing up in ignorance and to a heritage of sin. The mills all over the State, the shops in city and town, are full of children deprived of the right to such education as will fit them for the possibilities of their after life.* Nobody thinks of either enforcement or obedience in the matter, so that between those who are ignorant of the provision and those that care for none of these things, thousands of the poor younglings of the State, with all her educational boasting, stand precious small chance of getting even the baldest elements of education."

Waiving all question, then, as to whether a law compelling children to attend school is in consonance with the spirit of our free institutions, and whether the indisposition in this country to enforce such a law does not arise from that fact, the experience of Massachusetts teaches us that we in Pennsylvania must look in some other direction than in that of a compulsory law to find the remedy we are seeking for the evil of non-attendance at school.

After having carefully considered this delicate and difficult subject, I have about reached the conclusion that we must first do what remains to be done in the way of providing good school grounds, good school houses, and good teachers for our children, and we have yet much to do in this direction; and then supplement our present voluntary system by enactments as follows:

1. A judicious truant law.

2. A judicious law preventing the employment of children in mines, manufactories, etc., without some provision for their education.

3. A law authorizing boards of directors in cities and large towns to appoint and pay, when needed, a *school missionary*, to visit the parents of children not in school or attending irregularly, and endeavor to secure their attendance.

4. A law legalizing, if not requiring, the establishment of a home for friendless or neglected children in every county of the Commonwealth, and giving the boards of directors of the several school districts power to send to these institutions such children as the safety of society might justify being disposed of in that way. These homes should be established, supported, and managed by the same authorities that have the care of the almshouses, aided, perhaps, at first, by appropriations from the State. They should provide maintenance and clothing, as well as instruction, for the children. They should train the children up to habits of industry, and whenever suitable opportunities presented themselves, they should place them in good families, or where they could learn a useful trade.

A compulsory law, even if fully enforced, can not bring into the schools children suffering from the want of food, clothing or shelter, children who must work or steal in order to live, children who have no parents or friends to care for them; and a large proportion of those growing up in entire ignorance are of this class. The county home is just the place for them, and tens of thousands might by its means be plucked like "brands from the burning", and made good members of society. I have almost unbounded faith in the effect of good influences upon the character of the young. I believe most firmly that if all the ignorant, vicious boys and girls in Pennsylvania, could be at once brought into properly managed homes of the kind just spoken of, *nineteen out of every twenty* could be made good men and women—good members of society. If society is ever reformed, it will be done in this way. If the evils we complain of and suffer under,

are ever removed, rooted out, it will be effected by the right education of the young.

It is in favor, also, of the plan proposed, that it does not disturb the sacredness of the family—a matter so dear to the Anglo-Saxon race. The State would not be called upon to over-rule or break down parental authority, but merely step in to take the parent's place where children either have no parents or none that cared for them.

I can not too earnestly press this subject upon your attention and upon the attention of all good men.—*Supt.* J. P. WICKERSHAM *in Annual Report.*

TO TEACHERS WITHOUT "EXPERIENCE" AND WITHOUT "TRAINING."

BY M. A. NEWELL.*

There are about 200,000 teachers of public schools in the United States. Of these about one-fourth retire from active service every year, leaving their places to be supplied by others. If all the normal schools (real and nominal) in the country were filled to their utmost capacity, and one-fourth of their students graduated every year, there would be an annual supply of about 3,000 trained teachers. Let us suppose that nature is as prolific as art, and that 3,000 other teachers, with the stamp of native genius on their brow, though with no diploma of the schools in their hands, make their annual début. After making these liberal allowances, we have an annual influx into the schools of 44,000 teachers neither "born" nor "made";—chiefly young persons without experience and without special adaptation, whom necessity, or accident, or friends, or fate has transformed into school-masters and school-mistresses for the nonce.

The great educational problem of the age is, how shall this great army of raw recruits be converted into disciplined and steady soldiers. Our hypothesis has reduced the problem to its lowest dimensions. We have made the largest possible deduction for teachers of "experience", so-called, for trained teachers, for teachers "to the manner born", and yet we see that

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there must be a very large residuum, whose qualifications for their work must be developed after they have entered into office, if they are developed at all. It is to this large class, and especially to that large fraction of it, who are honest, conscientious, industrious, and desirous of improvement, that we propose to offer a few words of advice.

1. Practice alone will not make a man a better teacher. If a man starts wrong, the farther he travels the more he goes astray. So a teacher who has been on the wrong track for twenty years, is a worse teacher than he was when he commenced. Errors, which were at first doubtful propositions, are now self-evident truths. His professional vices are elevated into cardinal virtues. The Ethiopian can not change his skin nor the leopard his spots. Therefore this paper is not written for "experienced" teachers. Practice, by itself, enables us to do easily that which we do often: but not, necessarily, to do it better. The man of eight and forty does not write a better hand than the boy of eighteen; but the sense of effort has passed away. A woman at forty is not necessarily a better teacher than she was at twenty, but she does her work, such as it is, with less labor. Notwithstanding the changes which normal schools, teachers' institutes, and educational journals have inaugurated and advocated, the traditions of the last century are still the common law of half the schools in the United States. The law of the race is the law of the individual. That which has failed in the general system will fail in the particular instance. Practice or experience alone will never convert the wrong into the right, although it may help to obscure our perceptions regarding them.

2. The first and indispensable condition of improvement is a conviction on the part of the teacher that improvement is desirable and attainable. One of the earliest symptoms of spiritual decay is self-righteousness. One of the surest signs of intellectual demoralization is pride of knowledge. The most heavenly minded men are the most humble; the most learned men are the most modest. The greatest teachers are always searching after a better way. "Not as though I had already attained, either were already perfect", is their motto. "Our school system", says the Mayor of one of our great cities, "does not seem capable of improvement." Most probably the Mayor was right, though not in the flattering sense in which he desired his words to be understood. The young teacher, however, is not very likely to give way to vain-glory. If he is not utterly devoid of

common sense, the every-day work of the school-room will, at least, take the conceit out of him. The danger lies rather on the other extreme, that, finding his best efforts comparatively fruitless, he may become discouraged and take refuge in formalism, resting satisfied with a perfunctory discharge of the routine duties of his office. This is the sleep that ends in death.

But assuming that the inexperienced teacher, for whom these pages are written, feels that advancement in his profession is an excellent and a desirable thing, he may reasonably doubt whether it is attainable by him. "Understandest thou what thou" doest? "How can I, except some man should guide me"? The guide to whom the novice turns instinctively is the normal school, and that assistance being denied him, he feels as if help were impossible. The principals of such schools receive every year hundreds of letters from teachers, stating that they are extremely desirous to attend the normal school, but "circumstances over which they have no control", etc., etc.—which means they can not afford the expense.

3. There is no reason why a person whose means will not permit him to attend a normal school, should not become an excellent teacher on normal principles, without traveling beyond the limits of his own county. That normal training is an immense advantage, can not be denied; but many of those who admire it at a distance, do not know wherein its value consists. If any one thinks that a course of study at a normal school will supply him with ready-made plans for every operation, and rules for every emergency, so as to supersede the necessity of watchfulness, care, and anxious thought on his part afterward, he makes a great mistake. The great merit of the normal school is that it concentrates all the intellectual energies of the student on the single question, "How can I become a good teacher?" The desire is intensified, and the desire brings about its own fulfillment. Where this intense desire to teach well is wanting, normal graduates, whatever may be their literary qualifications, make as poor teachers as their less highly educated neighbors. They may have been fitted up, like a barrel organ, to grind out a limited number of tunes by turning a crank; but there is no principle of life or healthy growth in them; they are what Carlyle calls "dead, mechanical gerund-grinders, the like of whom will, one day, be manufactured at Nuremberg out of wood and leather."

Let no young teacher, who has an honest, earnest, hearty desire to be a good teacher, be discouraged, because the advantages

of normal training are out of his reach. The means of improvement lie within him and around him, if he will only make a right use of them. What these means are will form the subject of another article.

THE NORMAL PROBLEM.

BY S. H. WHITE.*

The discussion of this problem in the December number of the NATIONAL TEACHER touches upon a question of vital interest to the school system of our country—*the supply of well-prepared teachers for all the schools.*

In the discussion the fear is expressed that the establishment of district normal schools of a primary grade in a State having no normal schools at all, would defeat a higher institution of the same kind.

Granting for a moment that such would be the case, is it not better to have the elementary schools and forego the higher, if either must be given up? Is it not better for a State to establish several lower and cheaper schools in different localities, which can aid a large number of teachers, than to organize one or two of a higher and more expensive grade where but a few teachers will be benefited? The great defect is not so much in our educational system as in the instruction given under it. The disparity between the schools of the cities and the rural districts is the subject of remark by observing educators from abroad in visiting this country. What is most needed is better teachers for the schools of the country where the masses of the people are educated. It is among the producing classes, that greater intelligence is needed. Upon the return of their industry is built more than upon any thing else the prosperity and greatness of our nation. Normal schools of a higher grade can do nothing for them. They can only furnish teachers for the schools in cities where intelligence naturally centers, thus throwing their influence rather in the direction of creating a disparity in the education of classes than of equalizing it. Let the State so shape its course as to give the needed aid to the largest number of its teachers, and though it may not prepare them for the highest

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positions in her schools, there will have been a spirit enkindled which will impel many to fit themselves for higher work.

But is there really any ground for fear that the establishment of elementary schools would prejudice the interests of a higher one? Would not such a course naturally tend in the opposite direction? The educational spirit of the country is progressive 'T is true the masses follow; but the more intelligent and more numerous their leaders, the more the people themselves are enlightened—the more urgent will be the demand for higher privileges. The system of primary schools will naturally culminate in a central school of higher grade.

A part of the plan proposed in the article referred to, is for a State to erect several normal schools of equal rank, each having a course of instruction for primary teachers and one for those of a higher grade. Both courses would probably be of the same length, and would divide about equally the time of the instructors of the school. Taking schools of this kind already established as precedents, the classes in the advanced course will be quite small, smaller than is necessary for most profitable advancement. And this must necessarily remain so, since the number of teachers of higher grade will relatively be very much smaller than that of those in the lower grade. Then it would seem more economical of money and labor, and more profitable in its results to use the same means in establishing one or two schools of high grade and a larger number of lower grade. The fact that the normal schools of the country are to a considerable extent local institutions at any rate, would seem to favor the plan of increasing their number as much as is consistent with their efficiency. The other fact that by far the greater part of the students in normal schools remain less than a year, not long enough to complete even the primary studies, is evidence that for the mass of teachers schools of high grade are comparatively useless institutions.

The other part of the proposed plan is to leave to high school and other schools of the kind the scholastic instruction of teachers, and to supplement their work by institutes of a few weeks which shall be devoted to theoretical and professional instruction.

Against this plan there are two or three objections.

A very large share of the teachers in the country schools have not the knowledge which will enable them to enter a high school and these are the ones who need instruction more than any others.

A high school has a definite course of study not adapted in its character or its arrangement to the wants of a person who can give but a short time to a preparation to teach.

As a part of a course of study for most persons desiring to teach, there should be a careful review of the studies taught in the common schools, *with the work of teaching those studies continually in view.* The method of study and instruction should be of a quite different character from that given in a common or a high school.

Institutes of three or even six weeks are not sufficient to familiarize the mass of inexperienced teachers with the philosophy of mind and those educational principles which underlie its development, and upon which all intelligent instruction is based. Instruction in them is given by lectures, too abstruse or too general for the profit of the majority, hence those most in help stay away. Institutes are of incalculable benefit in giving suggestions to the more intelligent and experienced class of teachers and awakening a new educational spirit, but they lack the length of time and the fullness of detail necessary to make intelligent, independent teachers of the young men and women of the country as they come from the district schools.

Space will allow only a general and very brief statement of impressions upon this subject. Enough has been said, however, to indicate some of the features which enter into this problem and which must not be overlooked in its solution.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS—THEIR FAULTS AND REMEDIES.

No. II.

BY Z. RICHARDS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In pointing out some of the faults of our primary schools in our first article, we may, perhaps, have taken too much for granted; but it seemed to us that what we stated, though in an unpolished style to be sure, would be understood and would be acknowledged to be correct by every intelligent person, who has given the subject a careful examination. The faults we tried to point out may not be fully and vividly realized by those who have been moving along in the *old ruts* of the last fifty years.

The old road is about the same as ever, though a few venturesome engineers have put on a little more steam, have cut across some long bends, and have now and then attached a palace-car to their train. Yet for the majority of our children in school there is still a hard and rough road to travel.

We here propose to show how that road may be made pleasant, healthful, and profitable.

The first reform, which we think is needed, relates to the school-room. Let us suppose that fifty pupils (the largest proper number for one teacher) are to be trained in one room. The room should not have a size less than 28 feet by 30 feet, and 14 feet high; and it should be ventilated upon the most approved scientific principles, so as to keep the air always pure, without currents and with a temperature not below 70°. The seats and desks should be so made and located as not only to be comfortable, but to allow free, quiet, and easy access to them. Special care should be taken to furnish clear, uninterrupted daylight in a manner best adapted to the eyes of the pupils. One of the chief attractions of a school-room is its being pleasantly lighted. An agreeable light will serve to dispel gloominess and discontent of mind.

Again, as much of the side walls of the school-room as is not required for doors, windows, and permanent blackboards, should be provided with well-fitted cases, in which should be shelves, drawers, and pigeon-holes, covered with well-protected glass doors, with locks, etc., so as to keep out dust and unbidden hands. All the room on the walls, which can be made accessible and which can be spared, will be required for the articles of apparatus and lesson-objects which should form the basis of instruction. There should be light, firm step-ladders provided to enable the teacher or pupils to take from or put back to their places any lesson-objects which may be required; also, one good permanent blackboard in the rear of the teachers' platform, and two or three self-adjusting blackboards with requisite materials in each room.

Each pupil should be provided with only one and the same kind of reading book, suited to his grade, as a part of the school apparatus. This reading book should be so prepared as to furnish all the language lessons required for any specific grade. Inasmuch as children for the first three years of school are generally incapable of studying, or of acquiring knowledge from books, except as it is taught to them by the teacher, only such a

book is needed as will furnish a sufficient number of appropriate language lessons. These books of the pupils should be conveniently located, and they should be kept in the school-room the same as the lesson-objects. If the children want books at home, let their parents procure them and keep them at home. Children should not be required to carry books to and from school.

Very little and the most simple apparatus which will require expense to the people, will be needed. With a few articles as a nucleus a wise, zealous, and properly trained teacher could employ her pupils to collect nearly all the lesson-objects required, whether in the city or in the country. There should be such a variety of lesson-objects in the school-room as to make the room a kind of world in miniature.

At the first gathering and organization of the school, let each teacher collect and carry into it a few natural objects, such as leaves, flowers, stones, and fruits, as an example for her pupils. At the proper time, let her give a well prepared oral lesson upon each object, and then announce to the pupils that she desires each of them to bring to school the next day some new and different natural object, or even artificial, as a picture or model, or any kind of instrument, which shall be kept and credited to the pupil bringing it. At the proper time, let the teacher carefully examine, compare, and classify all objects thus presented *in the presence of the pupils*, making them observe the comparative peculiarities, giving them the names orally at first, and then printing or writing them on the blackboard, and, finally, drilling the pupils until they can select the appropriate name for each object. After classifying the objects, the teacher should deposit them in properly labeled drawers, cases, and shelves, prepared as above intimated. Let these collections be kept up from day to day, and on each day let some new objects be introduced for lessons on objects and words or language. Here the first ideas of numbers can be taught by showing the pupils *how many* different objects have been collected, and then *how many* different classes and *how many* of each class. The figures representing these numbers should be made upon the board and learned as in the case of names.

This kind of exercise and drill will furnish the most interesting and practical knowledge for the children, and, at the same time, it will most effectually teach them words, language, reading, spelling, and numbers. In this way, pupils may become in

the shortest possible time young botanists, mineralogists, zoölogists, good readers, good spellers, good writers, good talkers, and good thinkers, which is more than the majority of scholars now accomplish in school.

What we have said in regard to the school-room, we think is sufficiently suggestive, without further enlargement or detail. Let the above course, or a similar course, of training be adopted in our primary schools; and, with the other reforms of which we shall speak hereafter, they will no longer be repulsive to the children, nor will our school-rooms be stupefying pest-houses as they often are. The present common humdrum exercises of the school-room should be banished as unworthy of a truly civilized age.

WHICH?

Greene, who may be taken as a representative of a class of analysts, defines a sentence as "A thought expressed in words." Kerl says, "A sentence is a thought expressed by a proposition." But Clark says, "A sentence is an assemblage of words, so combined as to assert an entire proposition"; and so say substantially Welch, Dalgleish, Fewsmith, Harvey, and many others.

Now a "thought", however expressed, is obviously and clearly a very different thing from "an assemblage of words", no matter what that assemblage asserts. In other words, these two definitions declare the sentence to be, not the same thing, but two very distinct and different things; so different that if a sentence is a "thought", it is not "an assemblage of words", and if it *is* "an assemblage of words", it certainly is not a "thought." One or the other of the definitions is manifestly and radically wrong. Which is it? Is a sentence a thought? or is it an assemblage of words?

Again, some grammarians define a noun as a name. Others say it is a *word* used as a name. In this case, the distinction and the difference are not so clear; and yet it is not very difficult to see that the name and the word which expresses it are two distinct and different things. One is, indeed, the representative of the other. But the representative and the thing represented are separable and separate. The people and their representative are two distinct things, even though the people, as such, may

never appear in the representative hall. This being the case, the name and its representative being different and not identical things, which is the noun?

Still again, most of the arithmetics define a fraction as one or more of the equal parts of a unit. But most of them also proceed to divide some object—an apple, for instance—into parts, and tell you that one of those parts is a fraction. But it is clearly no part of a *unit*, but, in the case supposed, of an *apple*. A unit and an apple, certainly, are neither identical nor convertible things. But they also write down a figure 1 with a 2 under it and a horizontal line between them, and tell you that *that* is a fraction. It certainly is no part of an apple or of a unit. It comes nearer being three units, but it is not that. It is simply a certain combination of figures. Now here are three distinct and different things, each of which is called a fraction, not only by different authors, but by the same author, and in very close juxtaposition; and yet, if any one of them is the fraction, the other two are not fractions at all, but something else. Which *is* the fraction?

These examples are but samples of an ambiguity, and a consequent confusion and indefiniteness of ideas, that run through nearly or quite all our text-books. The most important and frequently used terms are sometimes used as expressive of one thing, and almost in the same moment and connection to express another and quite different thing. Under such a state of things, it is hardly possible to give students clear and definite ideas, or to attain anything like an accurate scientific classification. Hence we have such classifications of the sentence as give from four to six kinds of sentences; whereas there can be but two general classes, the simple and the compound—the complex being a variety of the simple sentence, the mixed of the compound, and the transitive and intransitive, either of the simple or the compound.

The one present need of our text-books and our schools is precision, and a consequent clearness, properly distinguishing and classifying differences and agreements. The keen eye, the steady nerve, and the strong hand that will do this will be a benefactor whose work, at least, the world will not let die. Not alone in the cases cited, but in numberless others, who will tell us *Which?*

In the first two cases cited, if not also indirectly in the third, the question is involved as to what is the subject of study—is it thought, or is it language? The grammars start out with the declaration that grammar—and hence necessarily analysis—is

the *science of language*. But if sentences are thoughts, according to Greene, Kerl, and others, then it is the science of thought, and not of language. Hence the "which?" involves not only the accuracy of a definition, but the very nature of the subject itself. It is not simply a question of what a sentence is, but also of what grammar itself is—whether it is a science of ideas and thoughts, or of words and sentences. Which?

Lincoln, Neb. A. D. W.

CASES IN GRAMMAR.

[*Continued from the December number.*]

Some teach that the *Forms* which words of certain kinds take on account of their relations to other words are *Cases*. What is involved in this teaching?

1. A definite number of cases. For the number of cases must equal the number of such forms. Of nouns in English, we should have two cases; of *some* pronouns, three.

2. This doctrine would justify us in making a greater number of cases in Latin, Greek, and other languages than in English, since in those languages we find a greater number of forms used on account of the relations the words hold. And by this doctrine alone can the almost universal practice of ascribing cases to adjectives and participles in other languages, and denying them to English adjectives and participles, be justified.

3. With this definition, our rule for the formation of the *possessive* is perfectly intelligible. While it is (or at least *seems*) impossible to conceive that, by adding an apostrophe and an *s* to one *relation* of a word, we can form another *relation*, it is not at all difficult to see that, by joining an apostrophe and an *s* to one *form* of a word, we may derive another *form*.

4. This doctrine saves at least some of our rules of construction from such degradation as the doctrine previously discussed imposes upon them. The rule for a noun or a pronoun used in any relation would simply direct us to choose a certain form previously presented and named. Such expressions as "*Him* discovered a planet" would be incorrect, not because of the *relation* the pronoun holds, but because of its *form*.

Finally, it may be remarked, that this definition is in accordance with the original signification of the term, and is essentiall

the same that has been given by the best authorities (we might as well say by *all* the authorities) from the first application of the term up to the present hour. Which of the two doctrines now considered the teacher should adopt (if he adopts either), the writer has now no time to discuss. But that point would seem to need no discussion. J. G. S.

REPLY TO CRITICISM IN DECEMBER NUMBER.

The writer of these articles is always thankful for criticisms (in whatever spirit given), by which his errors are pointed out and his knowledge increased. He desires only that his articles may be read *thoughtfully*, in the spirit with which one would enter upon the discussion of a quadratic equation, or the solution of any mathematical question. And he would object to the criticism in the number for December, 1871, only as it (probably unintentionally) misrepresents his positions.

1. The writer is charged with "ruling out" the "relation of the noun *to* the preposition." This he does not do. On the other hand, he expressly *rules it in!* And, moreover, instead of *lumping* it with other relations with which it seems to have nothing in common, he sets it by itself, and gives it a name of its own! See the article, seventh line.

2. The writer is charged with foisting upon authors who teach that *relations* are *cases*, rules which they never would use. Now the writer has examined first and last many scores of grammars, and he can not recall a single one whose author holds the doctrine under discussion, and does *not* give these rules or their equivalent. Will the critic have the kindness to publish in this journal the name of at least *one* author who "would *not* use such rules." Curiously enough, the critic first maintains that relations (or classes of relations) are cases, then denies that any one holding this doctrine would give such rules, and finally does himself *give just such a rule!* See the criticism, fifteenth line.

3. The critic charges the writer with assuming "that the making of case a relation necessarily excludes the consideration of *form*." The writer is entirely unable to see that he did any such thing. But he would be understood to maintain that *relations* of words and *forms* are totally unlike things.

The writer would object most strongly to one or two positions taken by the critic, but he must for the present pass these by. He is happy to agree with the critic in his final statement.

J. G. S.

SIGNS.

MR EDITOR: I wish to say a word in regard to the *vexed question of signs.*

In the February number you say that you "know no mathematical author who teaches that the expressions $a \div bc$ and $a \div b \times c$ are the same, either in process or result. The first denotes that a is divided by the product of b and c; and the second, that the quotient of a divided by b is to be multiplied by c."

Now I think the *fact* in the case, that there *is no usage* on the subject by mathematical authors. Such, at least, is the result of my observation. Mathematical writers always avoid such ambiguities by placing the factors composing the dividend above a line, and those composing the divisor below it; or, they say a divided by $b \times c$, and like expressions which are understood by all. There is, however, one usage which would seem to sanction Mr. Tufts's view of the subject. Such expressions as $a \times b : c \times d$ are common. Now (:) has the same significance as $\div$, and yet every one understands that in this case the product of a by b is to be divided by the product of c by d.

If there is ever any usage established in regard to this matter, I am inclined to think that mathematical authors will prefer to consider $a \div bc$ and $a \div b \times c$ as identical expressions.

Yours, etc.,

Salem, O., Feb. 20, 1872. M. C. STEVENS.

[Are not the expressions, $a \div b \times c$, a divided by $b \times c$, and a divided by b multiplied by c, equivalent?—ED.]

"BILLY-BONGS."

MR. EDITOR: I learned something from your December journal; yes, more than one something; but I specially remember one something that left me in the dark, with unsatisfied curiosity. On page 613, I read, "Water is found in (1) puddles, (2) ponds, (3) lakes, * * * (9) billy-bongs," etc. Now you can not tell how that unknown ninth word has tormented me. I have looked into old dictionaries and new, big and little; English, French, and German; slang dictionaries, and works on Americanisms; but nowhere can I find out what "billy-bongs" are. Will friend Watkins please "rise to explain", and, as we of the West say, "put me out of my misery",—giving meaning and origin?

Chicago, Ill., Feb. 8, 1872. WAMBA.

Editorial Department.

—— We are specially favored this month by our contributors, who discuss several important educational questions in a pointed and practical manner. Dr. Bittinger's paper is an able vindication of the claims of geography to a place in the common school. We have requested him to follow this with a paper on methods of teaching geography, and we hope that he may be both able and willing to comply. He has given special attention to this subject, and his views will be worthy of the consideration of our readers.

—— We call special attention to the article in this number on "Compulsory School Attendance", copied from the last annual report of the State Superintendent of Common Schools of Pennsylvania. Our readers will notice that Mr. Wickersham's views are essentially the same as those which we have expressed. It may be that Prussia has a little larger school attendance than Pennsylvania or any other American State; but is not the difference readily explained by the presence of a large foreign element in this country? In a recent speech in Congress Mr. Hoar stated that of the 97,000 illiterate persons in Massachusetts all but 7,912 are foreigners, and that of the 7,912 illiterate natives 2,200 were colored people lately from the South, leaving only 5,746 illiterate white natives in a population of nearly 1,500,000,—less than one per cent. An eminent judge of Connecticut states that, in many years of service on the bench, he has never met an adult native of that State who was unable to read and write. Where has the compulsory system wrought out more creditable results? We have more confidence in the four measures recommended by Mr. Wickersham than in any general compulsory law that has yet been enacted. The establishing of an adequate number of "Homes" for the care and education of orphan, destitute, and neglected children would of itself greatly reduce the ranks of unschooled youth.

—— We are very glad to publish our correspondent's views on "The Normal Problem", even though he takes exception to our December editorial. This is, indeed, "a question of vital interest", and it merits a thorough and dispassionate discussion, of which Mr. White sets a good example. We have no pet plan or policy to defend, but are anxious to find and ready to accept the truth, whatever it may be. We agree with our correspondent that the true end of a normal system is "*the supply of well-prepared teachers for* ALL *the schools*", but we do not yet see how this can be attained by two grades of normal schools, higher and elementary. If a sufficient number of such schools to educate a full supply of teachers were established, nearly or quite one-half of our teachers would continue to be educated in the academies, high schools, seminaries,

and colleges. We have in Ohio, for example, about one hundred and fifty public high schools and over one hundred colleges, seminaries, and academies. These institutions are located in nearly two hundred different communities, and, if there was a normal school in every county, they would still be attended by a considerable number of persons who will help fill the ranks of our teachers. How are these recruits, receiving their scholastic education in these institutions, to be provided with normal instruction? Would not the elementary normal schools need to be supplemented by normal institutes? How can the graduates of our high schools, for example, otherwise receive normal training? What normal school in the country can furnish a college graduate with a three months' course of instruction in pedagogics? Will our worthy friend who has given much thought to this subject, tell us how even the majority of prospective teachers can be brought into elementary normal schools? When we have his response, we will try to show the capability of the normal institute. Suffice it now to say, that the greater part of the instruction should be given in the form of reviews and class drills, designed to make the students practically familiar with methods of teaching and management. We will add that the limited school advantages now provided for the youth of country districts, call for correction. If it is practicable to place elementary normal schools within reach of those intending to teach, why may not free high schools be placed within reach of *all* who may wish to obtain the elements of a higher education?

—— We cheerfully give our correspondent (J. G. S.) an opportunity to correct what he deems a misrepresentation of his December article on case, but we use an editor's privilege to add a few comments:

1. We see that we misunderstood his position with respect to the relation of the noun *to* the preposition, and we regret that it was not expressed more clearly. But this correction does not break the force of our criticism. The attempt to prove that the doctrine that relations are cases involves an indefinite number of cases, by including the relations expressed by the *different* prepositions, is, we respectfully submit, grammatical "hair-splitting."

2. We do not propose to discuss the logical consistency of individual authors. Our correspondent must know that the fact that rules of construction, based on the idea that form is case, are not consistent with the doctrine that relation is case, is not a valid objection to the latter view. He will certainly not deny the *possibility* of framing rules which are consistent with this doctrine. We venture to submit three off-hand rules of construction for the noun: 1. A noun in the nominative, predicative, objective, or independent case, must have its simple form. 2. A noun in the appositive case must have the same case-form as the noun or pronoun with which it is in apposition. 3. A noun in the possessive case must end with *'s*. [Exceptions in note.] Like rules for the pronoun may easily be made. If the rule given in the fifteenth line of our criticism be "thoughtfully" read, it will be seen that it is not "just such a rule" as the one given in our correspondent's first article. There is some difference between "MUST BE" or "MUST BE PUT" and "IS." If relation is case, the object of a transitive verb or preposition *is* in the objective case. The rule was

intended to be supplemented by a rule determining the proper *form* of a noun when used in the objective case. See rule first above.

3. If we understand our correspondent's fifth objection (see Dec. article), he maintained that if relations are cases, the constructions, "*He* discovered a planet" and "*Him* discovered a planet" must be "equally correct"; that "under this doctrine, it is impossible to make incorrect constructions of nouns and pronouns." Now this conclusion *does not follow* unless the making of relation case "excludes the consideration of *form*", and hence we were warranted in charging that this was assumed. While it is true that the relations and forms of words are "totally unlike things", it is also true that the relations of nouns determine their forms.

It would not be a difficult task to raise several objections to the doctrine that form is case, but this subject has recently occupied more of our space than its importance justifies, and we forbear.

—— One of our Ohio exchanges submits a plan for making our institute system more efficient. It proposes that the State be divided into four institute districts, and that an institute commissioner be appointed for each, at a salary of $4,000, including traveling and contingent expenses. Each institute district is to be divided into forty sub-districts, and the Commissioner is to be required to hold annually a five-day institute in each. To pay the salaries of these four Commissioners, it is proposed to gobble the county institute fund, paid by the teachers, and now under their control. It is further proposed to require the schools to be closed and to compel the teachers to attend the institute. Other features are specified, but we have given enough to show that the scheme is unwise and impracticable. No one who has any experience in conducting institutes, would think of asking one man to conduct *forty* institutes in a year, and this, too, with the aid of county examiners! So far as the county institute fund is concerned, we say to the State "Hands off." Let the State appoint a corps of institute instructors and *pay them*, and let the present institute fund be expended by the County Teachers' Association in providing *additional* instructors and in meeting the incidental expenses of the institute.

—— President White, of Cornell University, has recently visited all the colleges of the country in which young women are educated with young men, and has given his views on the subject at a meeting in Boston. We infer that, on the whole, he is favorable to the plan, and it is probable that it will be introduced in his University. He says that at Oberlin the best reading of Tacitus was by a young lady; at the Michigan University, a lady carried off the mathematical honors and the girls stood the highest in the Botany classes; and at Antioch College they ranked very high in the German classes. So far as he could learn the young ladies held their own remarkably well. On the other hand, Dr. Miner, President of Tufts College, asks, "What right have young men to march up to the doors of Vassar College and demand admit-

tance? And yet they have just as much right as women have to demand that the doors of colleges, established exclusively for young men, shall be opened to them." The answer to this might be that there is but one Vassar for the young women of the country, while there are many colleges for young men; that since women are entitled to as high and liberal education as men, they have a right to go where it can be obtained. When the Japanese princesses are in Vassar, the suppositional case of young men asking for admittance may be a verity. Who would go to Yale or Harvard when such classmates are to be found at Vassar!

HIGHER EDUCATION AT YALE.

Our readers are perhaps not fully aware of the tendencies toward a higher education, which are beginning to appear in our country. We have schools of various grades and colleges, of all grades and no grades, and of these there is more or less definite knowledge. But higher than the college there are departments and means of education and culture gradually revealing themselves, not so well understood, which are of very great significance and value. At New Haven, for example, in connection with Yale College and the Sheffield Scientific School, there have been established additional and supplementary courses of study, under the care of able professors, by which a student may carry his investigations to almost any desired extent. These are generally called "Post Graduate Courses." There are already twenty-three such courses besides some partial courses. These are all disconnected from the three schools of Theology, Medicine and Law, in which students are fitted for the so called learned professions.

These courses cover a wide range of instruction. For example, Pres. N. Porter, whose whole life has been devoted to metaphysical studies, instructs in Psychology, Logic and the history of Philosophy; and ex-President Woolsey, in Polity, Political Economy and International Law. Any one wishing to pursue any of these studies far beyond the instruction given in a college course can spend years, if he chooses, under the guidance of these very learned and able men. So also one may devote years in the study of the science of language, and in acquiring a profound knowledge of special languages, such as Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and those of the Indo-European family, etc., under Professors Thatcher, Whitney, Hadley, Coe and Packard. So with Astronomy, Physics, Mathematics, Chemistry, Agriculture, Mineralogy, Metallurgy, Zoölogy, Palaeontology, Botany, History, etc., etc. Many, although not all, of these subjects are taught to a greater or less extent, in the college and in the Scientific School, but in the post graduate courses one may pass on to far higher achievements. Besides the benefits of learned instructors, the student has access to the various libraries and scientific collections of the college. There is entire liberty granted to each student to select such departments of study and research as best suit his tastes, proposed calling in life, time and pecuniary means at his disposal. Degrees are given to such as complete pre-

scribed courses. For many years the number of students in each course will probably be small, so that there will be comparatively little formality in the instruction, and the student may come into such personal contact with the teacher as will both please and stimulate him in his work.

It must be borne in mind that all these courses are supplementary to the college course and are engrafted upon it. The latter is not abridged or changed. The college first lays the ground work of liberal culture. By the time a young man is through college he has generally decided his future plans. Should those plans contemplate a broader and more profound culture, or a calling in life which may be rendered more efficient and satisfactory by a few years of special study, he has in this post graduate system of instruction the means of securing his wishes. The whole arrangement presupposes an earnest individual purpose in the student to accomplish something valuable for himself. It is not like the German University, with courses of lectures frequented by hundreds of young men, large numbers of whom care little for the personal gain, but attend because it is the way of the country and on account of social attractions. Thus, while the college is more than the German gymnasium, the Post Graduate Course of Yale is, in its practical value, more than the German University, for it secures a higher average of personal advantage. The Yale University, if such it may be called, crowns the college and thereby honors it. This appears to be one of the wisest educational arrangements ever devised. In its thoroughness, unity and beautiful symmetry it must command the admiration of all thoughtful friends of sound learning.

When we compare this with many of the so-called universities of this country, which affect to do marvelous feats of instruction in incredibly short courses, we see the difference between profound learning and shallow pretense. A college is not a university, and can not be in the very nature of things. It should be a thorough school of mental training, where, by such studies as are best fitted for the purpose, the mind is disciplined and prepared for further intellectual work. The courses of study in colleges may be varied somewhat and more importance be given to certain studies in some colleges than in others, but in all the great end of thorough mental discipline must never be lost sight of. This end secured, the young man is fitted to climb the higher summits of knowledge, and for such the post graduate course comes in as a helper and guide.

In the West we have a few colleges which are fully imbued with this spirit of patient thoroughness, and these colleges are slowly growing into favor. What is needed is not quantity but quality—not showy buildings, not great gatherings of young men, who may stay a term or a year or two years, and go away with the conceit that they are educated, or, should they finish their college course, be so taught that their conceit is only the greater. True learning is ever modest, and that college alone does its work truly and thoroughly, which impresses upon the students who graduate that their present attainments are very small in comparison with what remains to be learned. The inspiration of the true scholar comes from the vast realms of knowledge which lie before him. The moment either a student or professor or teacher of any grade begins to glory in his wisdom, you are reminded of the babbling of the brook

from its shallowness and the noise of the drum from its hollowness. It is from the high value to be accorded to such conscientious and exhaustive thoroughness as characterizes the higher walks of learning, that we are fully warranted in urging upon all grades of instruction, even to the lowest in our schools, a similar devotion to earnest and true scholarship. The moment we lose such devotion and descend to the arts which conceal real ignorance, the teacher's life becomes one of sham and pretense, a "much ado about nothing," which as clearly betokens ignorance as noise and froth denote the shallowness of the beach.

Hereafter we hope to note some of the attempts now being made at other institutions to secure the highest forms of education.

CHANGES IN HARVARD COLLEGE.

Harvard College is rapidly losing the conservative hesitation and timidity which are generally supposed to belong to old institutions of learning. The elective system of studies may be said to have largely displaced the old prescribed college courses The *College Courant*, after examining the reports of the Committees of the Overseers, says: "In the philosophical studies, including Moral Philosophy, and Civil Polity, Christian Morals, Political Economy, General and Constitutional History, etc, the favorite study with the seniors was Political Economy, and the next Modern History and International Law; while with the juniors Moral Philosophy was most generally selected. With regard to Greek and Latin the report says the statistics of the year show that the number of those electing Greek and Latin diminishes with each year of the course." But it is claimed that the "quality of the study improves."

According to the report of the committee, "the elective system depends to a great extent upon its not being purely elective, or, in other words, upon its being regulated by the counsels of judicious teachers and judicious parents. To allow a student at the outset, or any other part of his course, to choose his studies, is, in nine cases out of ten, to allow him to run the risk of ruining his academic education." It is possible that the thorough conviction of this fact will ultimately greatly modify the elective system at Harvard. Large numbers of students have no parents, or none who are "judicious" advisers, and, when it is left to judicious teachers, the result will be virtually a prescribed course of study. But just now the pendulum is swinging in the opposite direction.

The report also refers to the subject of recitations and examinations. Many instructors do not mark the daily recitations, but only mark the examinations. The first result of this certainly is to make the young men careless in regard to the former, and, to make up for time thus lost, resort is had to "cramming" for the examinations. To avoid cramming one member of the committee suggested that the examinations be held without previous notice. In order to secure constant preparation for such unexpected examinations, the professor may feel obliged to return to the marking of daily recitations. The report re-

fers to the appearance of the examination papers of the young men, as showing often such a hurried and slovenly aspect as to call for some method of correction.

It will interest many to know that the elective system has been extended to boys in the preparatory schools, who are destined for Harvard. Two courses of preparation are given, one requires more Latin and Greek, and the other less of these and more of mathematics. The friends of education in the land will watch these changes in old Harvard, and will approve of all changes that show real progress. As yet the college is in the experimenting stage.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION BILL.

The lower house of Congress has passed a bill "to establish an educational fund and to apply the proceeds of the public lands to the education of the people." The bill provides that one-half of the net cash proceeds of the annual sales of public lands shall be invested in five per cent. United States bonds, to be known as the "National Educational Fund", and that the interest of this fund and the other half of the net proceeds of land sales shall be annually distributed among the States and Territories, during the first ten years on the basis of illiteracy, and thereafter on the basis of population between the ages of four and twenty-one. One-half of the money received by any State or Territory the first year, and one-tenth in any subsequent year, may, at the discretion of the legislature thereof, be applied to the support of normal schools.

The conditions on which each State and Territory may annually receive its share of the money distributed are (1) that it shall have provided by law "for the free education of *all* its children between the ages of six and sixteen years;" (2) that it shall have applied all moneys previously received under the act in accordance with its provisions; and (3) that it shall have made an annual report of the school statistics specified in the act. The money received by each State and Territory, excepting the portion applied to normal schools, is to be distributed to the several school districts thereof, which shall have maintained, for at least three months during the preceding year, one or more free public schools for all children therein between the ages of six and sixteen years. The bill prescribes appropriate penalties to prevent the loss or misappropriation of the funds distributed.

It will be seen that this bill assumes no control of the school systems of the several States. It embodies the policy of *national assistance*—a policy which we have urged from the first. If, from the close of the war to the present time, the Government had set apart and used five millions a year in this manner, every State in the Union would now have an efficient system of free schools.

It is estimated that the money to be distributed annually, will amount to about one million of dollars, and the basis of distribution, wisely adopted, will give the greater part, during the first ten years, to the Southern States, where it is greatly needed, and where it will effect incalculable good.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of this journal due him, we always remail it.

—— The friends of this journal are reminded that the most favorable time for securing subscriptions for 1872 is rapidly passing. Many have done nobly, and prompt action by all will give us an encouraging circulation. We rely upon the co-operation of teachers and school officers, and we are trying to make the practical value of the magazine a sufficient reward. We add that our new title-page has been very generally commended as neat and attractive. Other improvements are contemplated.

—— Secretary B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut, returned from his European trip February 2d. He visited schools in Belgium, Holland, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Switzerland, Austria, Italy, France, and England,—in all about 1200.—— Hon. George Bancroft, the historian, now American Minister at Berlin, has given Harvard College ten thousand dollars to endow a fellowship, the incumbent of which shall study abroad. It is a wise and noble gift.——Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., has received a donation of $200,000 to build a large scientific building, which is to be 256 feet long, about 50 feet deep, and four stories high,—so says a private letter from one of the professors.——The late Mr. Isaac Rich, of Boston, gave $1,700,000 to the Boston (Methodist) University.——Prof. E. G. Robinson, of the Rochester Theological Seminary, succeeds Dr. Caswell as President of Brown University, Providence, R. I. —— The Oswego Normal and Training School, N. Y., recently graduated a class of twenty-five, all ladies.

Ohio.—The Central Ohio Teachers' Association has voted to hold a two weeks' institute for the teachers of graded schools, beginning August 26.——A comprehensive bill, codifying and revising the school laws of the State, has been introduced into the General Assembly.

Ohio Superintendents' Association.—The programme of exercises prepared for the meeting of the Ohio Association of Superintendents of Schools, to be held at Put-in-Bay, Tuesday, July 2d, 1872, is as follows: "Supervision, its Extent and its Limitations", Inaugural by Pres't Stevenson; "Uniform Classification of Schools", by S. Findlay, of Akron; "Uniform Method of Computing Attendance and Percentages thereof", by A. T. Wiles, of Zanesville; and "Methods of Instruction ased on Experience with Deaf Mutes", by G. O. Fay, of Columbus.

North-eastern Ohio Teachers' Association.—The meeting held in Akron, February 10th, was largely attended. Rev. Mr. Avery, of Middlebury, read a paper on "The Elements of Successful School Government," which elicited a lively discussion, participated in by Superintendent Higley, of Dayton, Superintendent Barnard, of Ravenna, Alex. Forbes, of Cleveland, Superintendent Findley, of Akron, and Reuben McMillan, of Youngstown. The subject of corporal punishment received chief attention. This was followed by the reading of a poem by Dr. Bowen, of Akron, entitled "Crown the Teacher; a Story of Olympus," which was warmly applauded. Superintendent Higley, of Dayton, gave a description of the music pipe used in the Dayton schools, to supply a want of voice on the part of the teacher. Miss A. A. Booth, Superintendent of Schools, Cuyahoga Falls, read an able paper on "Sex in Education." The subject was discussed by Rev. Mr. Miller, of Akron, Mr. Forbes, Mr. James, of Cleveland, and Mr. Higley. The paper was strongly commended. Superintendent Jones, of Massillon, read a paper on "The Relation of Common Schools to the Great Life Work," in which he urged a modi-

fication in the course of instruction below the high school. On motion of Commissioner Harvey, the course of study adopted by the Association was referred to a committee, with power to provide for a course of object teaching in the higher grades. A free lunch was served by the teachers of the Akron schools. The meeting is pronounced the largest and best yet held.

WISCONSIN.—This State leads all others in its present and prospective provision for the normal training of teachers. It has the largest normal school fund in the world, belonging to one state or government. This fund now amounts to over $1,300,000, of which over $600,000 is in money and now available, and the rest in lands. This magnificent fund is derived from Congressional grants of "swamp and overflowed land", which were formerly applied to drainage and to the support of common schools, normal schools, and academies. In 1869 the Legislature repealed all laws relating to these grants, and passed a law dividing the lands and the unexpended net proceeds of previous sales into two equal parts—the one part being denominated "the normal school fund" and the other the "drainage fund." The normal fund was entrusted to the care and direction of a board of normal regents, consisting of nine members, and having authority to establish and manage normal schools. Six normal schools were projected—one in each congressional district of the State. Three of these schools, located at Platteville, Whitewater, and Oshkosh, are now in successful operation, and the fourth is soon to be opened at River Falls. The three schools now in operation are respectively in charge of E. A. Charlton, Oliver Arey, and George S. Albee. The law authorizes the board of normal regents to use annually not exceeding $5,000 to defray the expenses of teachers' institutes in different parts of the State, and a law passed in 1871 appropriates $2,000 from the state treasury for the support of normal institutes of not less than four weeks' session, to be held under the direction of the county superintendent, assisted by one or more persons appointed by the State Superintendent. This is truly a grand beginning for a young State.

PENNSYLVANIA.—This State is now supporting thirty-nine institutions in which the orphans of soldiers are maintained and educated. The number of soldiers' orphans in these schools in November last was 3,360, and the whole number admitted since the schools were opened was 5,907. The whole number of orphans who will be cared for is estimated at 6,500. The cost of the system to the State the past year was about $500,000, and the whole cost since going into operation is about $3,000,000. Some $2,000,000 more will probably be needed before the schools are closed. "When the work is finished", says Supt. Wickersham, "it will show that about *six thousand five hundred* destitute soldiers' orphans have been maintained and instructed at a cost to the State of about *five million dollars*. Than this grand work of charity, Pennsylvania has done nothing nobler in all her history." We believe that it may be truly added that no State in the Union has ever done anything nobler than this, and what State ever made a better investment? For five millions of dollars Pennsylvania receives over five thousand intelligent and worthy citizens, to develop her resources, defend her honor, and illustrate her character.——The appropriation by the State for normal schools the current year (1871-2) is $62,500, of which $45,000 is for buildings.

RHODE ISLAND.—We learn from the first semi-annual report of the principal of the new State Normal School, located at Providence and opened last September, that 110 pupils, 35 of whom had previously taught, are pursuing the prescribed course. The school has made a very favorable beginning. Prof. Greenough is assisted by three lady teachers, and twelve special instructors and lecturers.

—— THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, (Boston,) provides a four years' course of literary and scientific studies. All students pursue a common course for the first two years, and then diverge upon special studies. This Institute is well endowed, and is one of the most thorough and successful scientific schools in the country. Prof. G. H. Howison, formerly from Marietta, and author of some mathematical works which have given him distinction, is now one of the professors of the Institute.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

AN AMERICAN COLLEGE IN TURKEY.—There are some most interesting educational movements in Turkey. Not long since, we heard in New York an address by Dr Hamlin, President of Robert College, situated near Constantinople, which was of the highest interest and value. The early difficulties in the way of introducing into Turkey an American college, as given by Dr. Hamlin, were fourfold. 1. The East was fixed and unchangeable. The oriental mind was apparently as much fixed in its modes and customs as if it belonged to the Paleozoic ages. 2. The Turkish Empire embraced a large number of dissimilar languages, and the races speaking these various languages did not mingle. The lines of nationality were sharply defined. 3. There was more or less repellency between the races, and it was feared that different students could not be brought harmoniously together. 4. The notions of education were so very low and narrow that all hope of introducing higher education and culture seemed useless. Notwithstanding these apparently insurmountable difficulties, the attempt to establish a college was made, and after many negotiations with the Turkish Government, sometimes with favorable and sometimes with unfavorable terms, the college was opened in 1864 with *four* students, not an Oriental among them, for two were English, one American and one Swiss. During the second year a very few natives came in, a third year more came, and the number has now increased far beyond the means of accommodation. Dr. H. believes that the number for the future is practically unlimited. There are now present in the college 47 Bulgarians, 47 Armenians, 38 Greeks, 12 English, 4 Germans, 4 Italians, 3 Americans, 3 Jews and one each from several other nationalities. In the public declamations fourteen languages are not seldom represented. Dr. Hamlin speaks highly of the mental capacity of the students, and thinks them not behind those of the Anglo-Saxon race. The course of study is modeled after that of Amherst College, excepting the languages, which are necessarily different.

What greatly interested us was the fact that in the preparatory course all learn the English language, while, at the same time, each is instructed in his own language. Thus, the English tongue is gradually to get a foot-hold in the East, and will have a wonderful effect in modifying Oriental modes of thought, manners and customs. The young men who go forth from Robert College will, by the inherent power of intellectual discipline and culture, become leaders of influence, and, as they are scattered through the East, there will spring up around them new schools, and thus fountains of Christian civilization will everywhere be opened. In no way could the effete institutions of the East be so successfully undermined and overthrown.

On the 7th of December last, Hon. Wm. E. Dodge, a distinguished merchant and philanthropist of New York, laid the corner stone of a new college edifice. Mr. Dodge has not only given money towards the endowment of Robert College, but has given a son to be a professor. The Institute was named from Christopher R. Roberts, a business man of New York, noted, like Mr. Dodge, for his intelligent liberality.

ENGLAND.—The new system of education in England, with all its valuable features, is by no means working smoothly. The power which it gave localities to establish denominational schools, under rigid restriction as to religious instruction, has been taken advantage of by the Established Church, owing to its enormous wealth, to set up a great number—so great, indeed, that through a great portion of the country the new schools are virtually in the hands of its clergy. This has infuriated the Dissenters, who are every where up in arms against it, and have been holding a great conference at Manchester with the view of forcing the overnment into some sort of a compromise; and their hostility is so great that it is believed a general election would now be a dangerous experiment for Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Lowe has made a pacificatory speech, in which he says he sympathizes with the Dissenters, but that the Government did all it was possible for them to do without running the risk of leaving another whole generation uneducated.—*The Nation.*

FRANCE.—The Council General of the Department of the Seine has voted in favor of the establishment of compulsory and gratuitous education, but has rejected the proposition to make the common schools wholly secular.

—Hon. B. G. Northrop, Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Connecticut, has spent nearly six months in inspecting the systems of public instruction in the different countries of Europe, having visited some 1200 schools on the Continent, including over 200 in the different departments of France. The latter country needs an entire reorganization of her school system, such as is contemplated in the bill of M. Jules Simon. Mr. Northrop finds the schools of France, especially out of the large cities, far inferior to those in the other countries he has visited. In Paris the evening schools and the schools of design, and those for the training of mechanics and skilled artisans, deserve special commendation.—*American Register.*

—M. Gambetta is credited with this true and important utterance: "The main cause of our defeat was ignorance. It can be established by the clearest evidence that our reverses were caused by the inferiority of our national education. We were beaten by adversaries who enlisted on their side foresight, discipline, and science. Even in the conflicts of material force, it is intelligence which gains the victory. The ignorance in which the masses of our people are groveling, engenders at intervals that can almost be fixed beforehand, those terrible explosions and social hurricanes, which appear in the course of our history like a kind of chronic disorder."

JAPAN.—There is a great revolution going on in the educational methods and systems of Japan. The Yeddo College is being remodeled, and it is said that hereafter only foreign instructors are to be employed. There is every where a strong desire for the learning and the science of the West, and the *College Courant* states that there are now nine schools to meet this want in different parts of the Empire, all sanctioned and supported by the government, and there is even a growing wish for the education of women. It is reported that, in the remarkable Embassy from Japan now in our country, there are six princesses who are to remain in the country for full education. It is stated that they will study at Vassar College, and be maintained at the expense of the Japanese Government. The English language and science will doubtless invade Japan as they are now invading Turkey.

CHINA.—There are indications that important educational changes will soon take place in China. The most significant of the innovations yet made is the establishment of a polytechnic school in the province of Futsien, in which instruction in mechanical engineering is given by foreign teacher.s

BOOK NOTICES.

A TEXT-BOOK OF CHEMISTRY. By LE ROY C. COOLEY, A.M. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.

Upon an examination of this book one finds much to commend. In *quantity* it is what may be easily mastered by the average student in the time usually devoted to the study of this subject in high schools and academies. The author has avoided an error into which many have fallen, by bearing in mind that not too much should be undertaken at one time. Chemical laws and chemical nomenclature are best taught by being gradually developed, rather than concentrated into a single chapter. In the beginning the elements — oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and carbon — are noticed, owing to their great importance in the study of the simpler reactions and chemical changes. The study of heat, light, and electricity, known as "Chemical Physics", is not introduced, and very properly, as they are sufficiently well considered in any good book on Physics. The new nomenclature is used entirely, but it is contrasted with the old, which is necessary, on account of the still general use of the latter in chemical writings. Much more attention than is usual is given in this book to combination by volume, and in the mathematics of chemistry, it is a real pleasure to see the author endeavor to impress upon the mind of the pupil the great value of the use of formulæ rather than rules. A formula in which one quantity is a function of four others, is really equivalent to five rules and occupies much less space, both in the books and in the mind. A good feature in this book is the study of the elements in groups, a careful study of a single individual is made to reveal the characteristics of a whole group. While no portion of the volume is set apart for organic chemistry, the author incidentally incorporates many of the most important facts usually introduced under that head. At the close we are, of course, treated to the orthodox chapter on the "Conservation of Force." This is, perhaps, well enough, but the writer would suggest the diffusion of this important and really elementary principle, throughout the entire discussion of the science of chemistry. That this is possible is evident to any one who has read the elegant little treatise on Physics by Balfour Stewart (London, 1870), and it will leaven the whole mass.

In the opinion of the writer, the list of examination questions at the close of the volume, is another praiseworthy feature. These are most useful to the pupil, as they enable him to test his knowledge of any part of the subject, and for this purpose they are esteemed rather than for any assistance which they may be to the teacher.

T. C. M.

PSYCHOLOGY; OR, THE SCIENCE OF MIND. By Rev. OLIVER S. MUNSELL, D.D., President Illinois Wesleyan University. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872. Geo. H. Twiss, Columbus, Ohio.

This is a new work on Mental Philosophy. Its author covers a wide range in his investigations, and gives his views concisely and, generally, clearly and ably. The style is a little rough sometimes, and is lacking in the candor and equipoise of mind which should always characterize the work of a philosopher. He is often very positive in the statement of his opinion. Such positiveness is well in statement of simple fact, but where there are differences of opinion between the most eminent metaphysicians in regard to the scientific explanations of facts, such differences having existed during centuries, it is not to be expected that President Munsell will be able to decide the profound questions at issue in single short paragraphs. Indeed, we think that no small part of the benefit of studying Mental Philosophy in our colleges comes from the fact that the battles are still being fought, and the student enters

the conflict as a real one. We should hardly thank President Munsell, be he never so able, to close up in his concise and energetic way the whole war, and show us only the pruning hooks and plow shares with here and there a bone of an unlucky soldier like Edwards or Spinoza, who has now fought his last battle. But, however this may be, the work before us shows vigor, method, and unusual condensation and compactness of statements. With a good instructor familiar with the whole history of metaphysical inquiry, and able to show to the student "the other side", the work will be an addition to our literature of the subject. There is a conservative religious tone which we like, and which seldom intrudes itself illogically.

ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY OF WONDERS. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.—
THE WONDERS OF THE HEAVENS. By CAMILLE FLAMMARION. From the French by Mrs. NORMAN LOCKYER. With 48 Illustrations.
WONDERFUL ESCAPES. With 36 Illustrations.

These two books conclude the First Series of the "Wonder Books", which includes twenty volumes, bound in uniform style and size, and subdivided into four series or "libraries."

"The Wonders of the Heavens" is a thoroughly good book, and one of the very best of this invaluable series. It gives a graphic account of the heavenly bodies and their movements. No knowledge of profound and transcendental mathematics is required for its pleasant and profitable perusal. There are some beautiful quotations from the French of Berangor, Lamartine, and others, which are left untranslated, thus furnishing delightful practice for French scholars, now becoming so numerous in all our better public and private schools. The illustrations are excellent.

"Wonderful Escapes" is, what its title implies, a collection of narratives of hairbreadth escapes, which will greatly interest boys. It has no narrative more exciting than many which might be furnished from this country, in the escapes of slaves, like "BOX BROWN", or of loyal southern men through the lines of the Confederacy during the late war. The book is well illustrated, but it is far from being one of the best of the series.

ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY OF WONDERS. Second Series. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.—
WONDERS OF ENGRAVING. By GEORGE DUPLESSIS.
WONDERS OF VEGETATION. From the French by FULGENCE MARION. Translated by Prof. SCHELE DE VERE.

The "Wonders of Engraving" is a book of rare interest. It contains information not easily accessible. In these days, when there is an increasing desire to obtain works of art, and while paintings are beyond the reach of most people, it is desirable to know something about engravings. A portfolio of good engravings of the best masters is certainly the next thing to a galaxy of original paintings. Too often copies in oil of great paintings are poor and blurred, but an engraving made by a true artist reproduces the original with such effect as to make it a great treasure and a constant joy to the happy possessor. The work of Duplessis describes the various kinds of engravings, and gives sketches of a large number of the most famous engravers.

The "Wonders of Vegetation" is a very beautiful book. It is illustrated by 61 plates, showing some of the most remarkable trees and plants of the world. The work is well written, and Prof. De Vere's translation leaves nothing to be desired. There is a vast amount of knowledge of the most interesting and fascinating character to be obtained from it. We commend the work most fully and unhesitatingly for its rare and beautiful attractions.

THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF OHIO. Report of Progress in 1870. Columbus, Ohio: Nevins & Myers, State Printers.

This report is published in a large octavo volume of near six hundred pages, accompanied by Maps of Grouped Sections from the Second Geological District, the survey of which has been in the hands of Prof. E. B. Andrews. It includes reports by Professors Newberry, Andrews, and Orton, Mr. Klippart on the agricultural survey, Prof. T. G. Wormley, chemist, and reports from Messrs. Gilbert, Read, Newton and Potter, local assistants. It also contains a valuable paper by Mr. Mendenhall, of Columbus, on "The Heating Powers of Some Ohio Coals."

It is impossible in a brief notice of so extensive and important a work to give even a general idea of its contents. It should be found in the libraries of every principal town and village of the State of Ohio, and it is greatly to be desired that it may not suffer the fate of most "public documents", which are cast away and destroyed as so much rubbish. Members of the Legislature, to whom is committed the task of the distribution of these books, should see to it that they fall into appreciative hands.

The State of Ohio has been liberal in the matter of this Geological Survey, and the people have a right to expect valuable results. It is not pleasant to believe that men to whom has been committed an important trust, have been neglectful of their duty; but the examination of the reports for 1869 and 1870 together leaves the impression that, while in two districts of the State an industrious and thorough study has been made, it is not absolutely certain that such is the case in others. Two hundred pages of the report for 1870 come from the pen of Prof. Andrews who has charge of the Second District. His report is and will be of very great value to the important mining interests of our State, as he has devoloped with great industry the economic geology of Southeastern Ohio. There is no doubt that this study of our coal and iron regions has already enriched the State by an amount equal to many times the cost of the entire geological survey. A similar careful and conscientious work has been carried out in the district under the charge of Prof. Orton, and the results are of great scientific as well as practical value. The report of the Chemical Department of the survey by Prof. Wormley is most thorough and satisfactory. The methods of analysis are given, and many of the results are new contributions to geological and chemical science. It is indeed fortunate that this department should have been intrusted to such an eminent and skillful chemist. It is to be regretted that as much can not be said of some other portions of this report; but, after reading the brief contribution of the Chief Geologist (less than fifty pages in the volume of about six hundred), it is hard to resist the feeling that the work has not received the attention which it deserves, and which would be expected from one so well known for his scientific attainments. So important and responsible a position as chief of this survey, should not have been accepted by one unable to devote his whole time and energies to the work. Of the agricultural part of the survey, perhaps but little need be said. The report of 1869 contains nothing from this source, and that of 1870 does not seem to contain more than might have been worked out in three or four months. The several contributions from local assistants, included in the volume, are interesting and valuable. Among these are papers on the manufacture of iron and steel, which will be found of great interest to the general reader.

THE PARSER'S MANUAL: Embracing Classified Examples in Nearly Every Variety of English Construction: Designed for Schools and for the Use of Private Students. By JOHN WILLIAMS, A.M. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

We had the privilege of examining this unique manual in manuscript, before a publisher had been secured. We concluded that it would not only be a very great

help to teachers, but that it would be a capital drill book for advanced classes in academies, high schools, and normal schools. The ordinary text-books in English grammar contain, perhaps necessarily, too few exercises to make the pupil familiar with the more difficult constructions. Some of these are illustrated by only an example or two with no drill exercises. Classes that have gone over these books, acquiring a knowledge of only the simpler constructions, will best master the difficulties by taking them up in proper order and analyzing and parsing numerous examples. An examination of the work in its attractive printed form has increased our favorable opinion of its merits and of its adaptation to school use. It is the result of many years of careful study by a ripe scholar and successful teacher. Prof. Williams has long been known as one of the finest grammarians and linguists in Ohio, and we take special pleasure in commending the work of our venerable friend to the profession which he has so long honored.

GIBSON & CO.'S PROGRESSIVE DRAWING COPY-BOOKS. A Series of subjects selected from the Latest Works of the Most Celebrated European Artists and Drawing Teachers, and especially adapted for Schools. Cincinnati: Gibson & Co.

This series of drawing books comprises twelve numbers, designated by letters. Number A presents simple studies; B, straight-line objects; C, curved-line objects; D, E, and F, leaves and flowers; G and H, ornaments; I and J, animals; K, birds; and L, human figures. Each book contains six leaves, and the models to be copied are usually placed on the page to be used by the pupil—a convenient arrangement. Both sides of each leaf are used, and thus the demands of economy are fully met. The lessons seem very well graded, and their large size will give the pupil practice in a free movement of the pencil. We judge that the series is somewhat deficient in exercises involving the principles of perspective. The plane on page eleven of book B and the two houses on the next page are not correctly drawn. The perspective of the second house is very faulty. The books are the cheapest in our collection.

SPENCERIAN PENMANSHIP. In an Improved Form of Copy-Book, patented by N. P. BEER. In Twelve Numbers. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

This improved copy-book consists of a strong and neat envelope cover, enclosing twelve sheets of paper, ruled and spaced as in the latest edition of the Spencerian Penmanship, and with the same head-line copies. The envelope so opens as to expose the upper lines of the page, and, as these are filled by the pupil, the sheet can be drawn out exposing successively the lines below. When the first sheet is filled on both sides, it can be placed under the unwritten sheets. This arrangement gives a uniform thickness of paper and an even support for the hand throughout the entire book, and the envelope completely protects the paper from the contact of the hand when writing. The book occupies less space on the desk, and trial and blotting paper may be conveniently kept in the envelope. These and other advantages will make this new copy book a favorite with teachers and pupils.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW. Published Quarterly. JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL and HENRY ADAMS, Editors. $6 a year. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The January number of this standard Quarterly has the following attractive table of contents: 1. Poor-Law Administration in New England. 2. American Criticism: Its difficulties and Prospects. 3. Oratory and Journalism. 4. Thomas Watson the Poet. 5. Harvard College, 1786–87. 6. The Butler Canvass. 7. Critical Notices The paper on Harvard College is one of special interest. It gives a graphic account of student life and manners in that institution in the first decade and also in 1786–7.

It seems from this account that the course of study at that time was not higher than the present course in our better high schools. The recitation demands upon the students were far below the present, and the discipline was much more lax.

THE INDEX COMPANY, Chicago, Ill., manufacture "Alden's Temporary Binder" and "Alden's Permanent Binder"; the former for filing temporarily and the latter for binding permanently magazines, newspapers, sheet music, etc. With the permanent binder parties can do their own binding about one-third book binder's prices, and the binding is said to be neat and durable. We have a specimen of the temporary binder, which is the best and most convenient that we have seen. They also publish Bill and Letter Files.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

COLTON'S NEW SERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES: 1. Colton's New Introductory Geography. 2. Colton's Common School Geography. By G. Woolworth Colton. Sheldon & Co., New York. 1872.

THE ART OF TEACHING SCHOOL. A Manual of Suggestions for the Use of Teachers and School Officers. By J. R. Sypher. J. M. Stoddart & Co., Philadelphia. 1872.

EDUCATIONAL YEAR-BOOK, 1872. [1871?] A Hand-Book of Reference. Published Annually. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York and Chicago. 1872.

ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY OF WONDERS: The Wonders of Vegetation. From the French of Fulgence Marion. Edited by Schele De Vere, D.D., LL.D. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY OF TRAVEL, EXPLORATION, AND ADVENTURE. Japan in Our Day. Edited by Bayard Taylor. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

WILFRID CUMBERMEDE. An Autobiographical Story. By George MacDonald. With Fourteen Full-Page Illustrations. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

THE SCHOOLS OF THE PROPHETS. A Lecture by Prof. H. A. Thompson, Westfield College, Ill. United Brethren Publishing House, Dayton, O.

PARTURITION WITHOUT PAIN. Edited by M. L. Holbrook, M.D., Editor of the "Herald of Health." Wood & Holbrook, New York.

SCHOOL REPORTS.

Report of the National Commissioner of Education for the Year 1871. With Accompanying Documents. John Eaton, Jr., Commissioner.
Virginia School Report, 1871. Wm. H. Ruffner, Supt. Pub. Instruction.
Annual Report of Minnesota, 1871. Horace B. Wilson, Supt. Public Instruction.
Report of Common Schools of Pennsylvania. J. P. Wickersham. State Supt.
Annual School Report of New Jersey, 1871. E. A. Apgar, State Supt.
Annual Report of the New Jersey State Normal School, Lewis M. Johnson, Prin'l.
Annual School Report of Milwaukee. F. C. Lau, Supt.
Annual Report of the Ohio Penitentiary, 1871. R. Burr, Warden.
Annual Report of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. G. O. Fay, Prin'l.
School Circular of Waynesville, O. W. M. Harford, Supt.
Annual Report of the Maryland Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. Charles W. Ely, Principal.

PAMPHLETS AND CATALOGUES.

Text-Books on Geometry. An Essay. By Prof. C. H. Judson. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.
Report of Teachers' Institute, Allegheny Co., Pa., 1871. A. T. Douthett, County Supt.
Report of Teachers' Institute, Washington Co., Pa., 1871. Wm. G. Fee, Co. Supt.
Minutes of Teachers' Institute, Wabash Co., Ind., 1871. Alvah Taylor, Co. Exm'r.
The Clinical Thermometer. By Z. C. McElroy, M.D., Zanesville, O.
Inaugural Address of George Thacher, President Iowa State University. Griggs, Watson & Day, Davenport, Iowa.
Illustrated Annual of Phrenology and Physiognomy. S. R. Wells, New York.
Annual Catalogue of Mt. Union College, O., 1871–72. O. N. Hartshorn, Pres't.
Annual Catalogue of Hiram College, O., 1871–72. B. A. Hinsdale, President.
Annual Catalogue of Mass. Institute of Technology, 1871–72, Boston. John D. Runkle, President.
Circular of the State Normal School and College at Buffalo, N. Y. Henry B. Buckham, A.M., Principal.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER:

A MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

Vol. II. APRIL, 1872. No. 4.

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

BY HON. JAMES A. GARFIELD.

A Speech in the House of Representatives, February 6, 1872.

"The preservation of the means of knowledge among the lowest ranks is of more importance to the public than all the property of all the rich men in the country."—*John Adams's Works, III*, 457.

"That all education should be in the hands of a centralized authority," * * "and be consequently all framed on the same model, and directed to the perpetuation of the same type, is a state of things which, instead of becoming more acceptable, will assuredly be more repugnant to mankind, with every step of their progress in the unfettered exercise of their highest faculties."—*John Stuart Mill*, "*The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte*", p. 92.

MR. SPEAKER: In the few minutes given me, I shall address myself to two questions. The first is, What do we propose by this bill to give to the cause of education? and the second is, How do we propose to give it? Is the gift itself wise, and is the mode in which we propose to give it wise? This arrangement will include all I have to say.

First, we propose, without any change in the present land policy, to give the net proceeds of the public lands to the cause of education. During the last fifteen years these proceeds have amounted to a little more than thirty-three million dollars, or one per cent. of the entire revenues of the United States for that period. The gift is not great, but yet in one view of the case it is princely. To dedicate for the future a fund which is now one per cent. of the revenues of the United States to the cause of

education, is to my mind a great thought, and I am glad to give it my indorsement. It seems to me that in this act of giving, we almost copy its prototype in what God himself has done on this great continent of ours. In the center of its greatest breadth, where otherwise there might be a desert forever, He has planted a chain of the greatest lakes on the earth, and the exhalations arising from their pure waters every day, come down in gracious showers, and make that a blooming garden which otherwise might be a desert waste. And from our great wilderness lands it is proposed that their proceeds, like the dew, shall fall forever, not upon the lands, but upon the minds of the children of the nation, giving them for all time to come all the blessing and growth and greatness that education can afford. That thought, I say it again, is a great one, worthy of a great nation, and this country will remember the man who formulated it into language, and the Congress that made it law.

The other point is one of even greater practical value and significance just now, than this to which I have referred. It is this: How is this great gift to be distributed? We propose to give it, Mr. Speaker, through our American system of education; and, in giving it, we do not propose to mar in the least degree the harmony and beauty of that system. If we did, I should be compelled to give my voice and vote against the measure; and here and now, when we are inaugurating this policy, I desire to state for myself, and, as I believe, for many who sit around me, that we do here solemnly protest that this gift is not to destroy or disturb, but it is rather to be used through and as a part of and to be wholly subordinated to what I venture to call our great American system of education. On this question I have been compelled heretofore to differ with many friends of education here and elsewhere, many who have thought it might be wise for Congress, in certain contingencies, to take charge of the system of education in the States. I will not now discuss the constitutional aspects of that question; but I desire to say that all the philosophy of our educational system forbids that we should take such a course. And in the few moments awarded to me, I wish to make an appeal for our system as a whole as against any other known to me. We look sometimes with great admiration at a government like Germany, that can command the light of its education to shine everywhere, that can enforce its school laws everywhere throughout the empire. Under our system we do not rejoice in that, but we rather rejoice that here two forces

play with all their vast power upon our system of education. The first is that of the local, municipal power under our state governments. There is the center of responsibility. There is the chief educational power. There can be enforced Luther's great thought of placing on magistrates the duty of educating children.

Luther was the first to perceive that Christian schools were an absolute necessity. In a celebrated paper addressed to the municipal councilors of the empire in 1524, he demanded the establishment of schools in all the villages of Germany. To tolerate ignorance was, in the energetic language of the reformer, to make common cause with the devil. The father of a family who abandoned his children to ignorance, was a consummate rascal. Addressing the German authorities, he said:

"Magistrates, remember that God formally commands you to instruct children. This divine commandment parents have transgressed by indolence, by lack of intelligence, and because of overwork.

"The duty devolves upon you, magistrates, to call fathers to their duty, and to prevent the return of these evils which we suffer to-day. Give attention to your children. Many parents are like ostriches, content to have laid an egg, but caring for it no longer.

"Now, that which constitutes the prosperity of a city is not its treasures, its strong walls, its beautiful mansions, and its brilliant decorations. The real wealth of a city, its safety and its force, is an abundance of citizens, instructed, honest, and cultivated. If in our days we rarely meet such citizens, whose fault is it, if not yours, magistrates, who have allowed our youth to grow up like neglected shrubbery in the forest?

"Ignorance is more dangerous for a people than the armies of an enemy."

After quoting this passage from Luther, Laboulaye, in his eloquent essay entitled "*L'Etat et ses Limites*", pages 204 and 205, says:

"This familiar and true eloquence was not lost. There is not a Protestant country which has not placed in the front rank of its duties the establishment and maintenance of popular schools."

The duties enjoined in these great utterances of Luther are recognized to the fullest extent by the American system. But they are recognized as belonging to the authorities of the state, the county, the township, the local communities. There these obligations may be urged with all the strength of their high sanctions. There may be brought to bear all the patriotism, all the morality, all the philanthropy, all the philosophy of our people, and there it is brought to bear in its noblest and best forms.

But there is another force even greater than that of the state and the local governments. It is the force of private voluntary enterprise, that force which has built up the multitude of private

us to place public instruction on the broadest foundation, and to revive in our provinces the old universities that will become more flourishing as the citizens shall interest themselves directly in their progress?

"To accomplish this it will also be necessary that governments, appreciating the wants of their epoch, shall with good grace relinquish a part of the duties now imposed upon them, and aid the people in supporting the rigid *régime* of liberty, by enlarging the powers of the municipal councils and of the councils of the departments, by favoring associations and public meetings, by opening the freest field to the examination and discussion of national interests; in short, by deserving the eulogy addressed by a man of genius to a great minister of France: 'Monseigneur, you have labored ten years to make yourself useless.'"

I have made these citations to show how strongly the public thought of Europe is moving toward our system of public education as better and freer than theirs. I do not now discuss the broader political question of state and municipal government as contrasted with centralized government. I am considering what is the best system of organizing the educational work of a nation, not from the political stand-point alone, but from the stand-point of the school-house itself. This work of public education partakes in a peculiar way of the spirit of the human mind in its efforts for culture. The mind must be as free from extraneous control as possible; must work under the inspiration of its own desires for knowledge; and while instructors and books are necessary helps, the fullest and highest success must spring from the power of self-help.

So the best system of education is that which draws its chief support from the voluntary effort of the community, from the individual efforts of citizens, and from those burdens of taxation which they voluntarily impose upon themselves. The assistance proposed in this bill is to be given through the channels of this our American system. The amount proposed is large enough to stimulate to greater effort and to general emulation the different States and the local school authorities, but not large enough to carry the system on, and to weaken all these forces, by making the friends of education feel that the work is done for them without their own effort. Government shall be only a help to them, rather than a commander in the work of education.

In conclusion, I say that in the pending bill, we disclaim any control over the educational system of the States. We only require reports of what they do with our bounty; and those reports brought here and published for the information of the people, will spread abroad the light, and awaken the enthusiasm and emulation of our people. This policy is in harmony with the act of 1867, creating the Bureau of Education, and whose

fruits have already been so abundant in good results. I hope that the House will set its seal of approval on our American system of education, and will adopt this mode of advancing and strengthening it.

TO TEACHERS WITHOUT "EXPERIENCE" AND WITHOUT "TRAINING."—No. II.

BY M. A. NEWELL, BALTIMORE, MD.

We are now to consider the means by which an earnest and conscientious young teacher, who is debarred from the advantages of normal training, may nevertheless rise to distinction in his profession.

1. *Visit and observe.* Ascertain by inquiry which is the best school within your reach, and spend a day there. The teacher may or may not be a better teacher than you are; in either case your day will be well spent. If you are so fortunate as to have selected a good school, you will see some things worthy of imitation; but if you have got into an inferior school you will have learned (what is of hardly less importance) many things to avoid.

But do not mount the teacher's platform and stare at the scholars as you would at the monkeys in a menagerie. You will not see the school to advantage till the teacher and pupils have lost the consciousness of your presence. Ask permission to sit among the boys (or among the girls if you are a young lady), and make yourself one of them. In half an hour they will forget they have a stranger among them; and in another half hour the teacher will ignore your presence, too, and then the real work of your visiting day begins. Do not take notes—at least during the exercises; at recess you may make some brief memoranda, but perhaps it is better to trust entirely to your memory. Teachers naturally object to have all their "faults" observed set in a note-book, learned and conned by rote", even though one does not mean to "cast them into their teeth" afterward.

Observe closely the following points: (*a*) The conditions of the school-room and play-ground before opening, as regards order, etc.; (*b*) the method of opening school; (*c*) the regulations regarding lateness; (*d*) the arrangement of the desks, re-

citation-benches, maps, etc.; (*e*) the order of exercises; (*f*) the proportion of time assigned to each study; (*g*) the method of recitation in each subject; (*h*) the varying amount of interest shown by the pupils in the various studies: (*i*) the apparent effect of approbation or reproof on a pupil praised or blamed; (*k*) the effect of recess, calisthenic exercises, or singing, on the recitation immediately following any of these exercises; (*l*) the difference between the amount of attention given in the morning and the afternoon session; (*m*) the different effects produced by the teacher standing and the teacher sitting, by the teacher in one part of the room and in another part of the room; (*n*) the methods of moving the scholars into school and out of school, to the play-ground and from it, to recitation and from recitation. The catalogue of things to be observed is far from being exhausted, but what has been named will be sufficient for a sample.

After observation comes comparison. Compare the school you are visiting with your own school in every particular named, and note especially those particulars in which they differ. If the differences seem to be very slight, your powers of observation are probably in fault; but they will improve with practice, and this is not to be your last school visit. We expect you to spend one day of every term in a similar way, even if you are compelled to pay for the lost (?) time—an outrage of which no school director, we hope, would be guilty. But even if the day has to be paid for, it must be taken; one can not make an omelet without breaking eggs, and you can not learn to be a teacher without making some sacrifice.

Now, having observed and compared the facts, the next inquiry is into the *reasons*. Why have you adopted one method, and why did your neighbor adopt another? Probably your host could throw some light on the subject, if he were not too tired to talk with you after his hard day's work. Let us hope that your way homeward lies in the same direction as his, and that you wind up a day of close observation by an hour's conversation about what you have seen.

But you will never become a first-rate teacher by *imitation* merely. You must be yourself, and not an imperfect copy of some other man, however eminent in his profession, if you would achieve the highest success. Your visit has been paid not for the purpose of seeing and imitating, but for the purpose of having your thoughts roused into activity by new associations.

t is at least possible that plans which your neighbor has made uccessful, might lead you into failure. You will therefore adopt ıothing that you may have seen, however attractive, until you ıave carefully considered what its effects would likely be, when eproduced under altered circumstances.

2. Make a careful and close *study of your own mental operations.* Look back, if you can, on the time when you were yourself a earner—the farther back the better if your memory is good. Can you remember *how* you learned to spell and read and parse? Most likely not. You know the general fact that you did learn hese things, but as to the mental processes involved in the ope- ation, not being capable of making accurate observations at the ime, memory can not recall them. Something, however, of im- portance may be recovered, if you will think patiently and in- vestigate narrowly. Let us hope that you were not a "smart" oy (smart boys rarely develop into patient teachers), but that ou were reasonably slow and moderately dull; that you had a ard time over your spelling book, and found "multiplication a exation", and groaned lustily over your English grammar. "A ellow feeling makes us wondrous kind." If you can only recall a few of the difficulties that beset your path at this interesting time of life, it will be fruitful of suggestions in your present sphere of duty. "*Non ignara mali, miseris succurrere disco.*"

But, if memory is treacherous, and you can find nothing use- ful after all your rummaging in the old garret, take up a new study and a hard one, and as you make slow and steady progress in your search for knowledge, watch with patient scrutiny every step in the mental process, from total ignorance to vague appre- hension, clear comprehension, familiar knowledge, absolute mas- tery. You will see, among other things, that the beginnings of knowledge are always misty, and that it is only by patient wait- ing, "by thinking carefully thereunto", by holding up the shad- owy image for a sufficient length of time before the mental gaze, that we get out of the mist and into the sunlight. You will learn that often your best efforts will fail to extract any clear sense from the words of an author, and afterward when, without con- scious effort, the meaning has burst upon your mind, you will be astonished that you could possibly have failed to see it at first. You will find by experience that patience and kindliness lie at he foundation of all right teaching and solid learning; and you will acquire such a sympathy with your fellow-learners as will

carry them and you over many a rough place with the minimum amount of jolting.*

3. *Study the habits of children* out of school. Women are better teachers of elementary schools than men, not so much on account of their greater patience, sympathy, tact, and kindliness, as because their home-life has made them better acquainted with the "ways of children." To know children well, we must study them out of school. We can not study botany to advantage in a flower-garden, for the most beautiful flowers of the gardener are botanical monstrosities. We see but little of genuine child-nature in the ordinary school-room. Most of the specimens that we see there are educational monstrosities—very good in their way, but not natural. There seems to be something in the atmosphere of many schools that changes the very nature of the child that breathes it, turning brightness into dullness, curiosity into indifference, and restless energy into "masterly inactivity." A boy who will learn a complicated game in half an hour, sits in puzzled perplexity over a problem in arithmetic for half a day. A girl who writes a four-page letter to a distant friend, without thinking of the trouble, can not accomplish twenty lines of a "composition" without *borrowing*. It is only by studying the habits and abilities and tempers of children out of school that we may expect to get them to do their best in school. The process of learning is the same in all minds and at all ages. True, some learn rapidly and others slowly; some so rapidly that it looks like a flash of intuition, and others so slowly that the progression never terminates in what we call progress. But the difference is essentially one of *time*, just as a child takes an hour to walk round a square which an active man can do in five minutes. Nevertheless the same ground is traversed by using the same muscles in the same way in both cases. As we grow older we take our mental steps so rapidly that we can not follow them readily; as an expert player on the piano runs over the keys so quickly that the eye fails to keep up with the movement. But

* A young teacher had spent the early morning hours over a paragraph in *Demosthenes de Corona*, and finally was obliged to leave it still unraveled, in order to be at his school in time. During the day, the writer visited the school, and found him teaching the multiplication table. He was trying to induce a young urchin to say "four 8's are 34", and though he tried his best, and the scholar seemed to be doing his best, they both failed. After a quarter of an hour's struggle, he gave up in despair, and good-humoredly turned to the next. I wondered how he had so much patience. "Perhaps, sir, it was as hard to him as my Greek was to me."

the same movements can be followed readily enough when made by a beginner. Our best opportunity for studying the mental phenomena that terminate in the acquisition of knowledge, is in the case of young children before they attend school, and older ones when they are removed from the restraints of the school-room. The problem would be simplified still further in theory (though made more difficult in practice) by a study of the methods by which the deaf and dumb and the blind acquire knowledge. In a similar way we simplify many problems in mechanics by eliminating, in the preliminary investigation, the considerations of friction, the resistance of the air, etc. The investigator who shall trace clearly and precisely every step that the human mind takes in the acquisition of what we call knowledge, will perform a greater service to mankind than if he had discovered "the Northwest Passage." Here is room for original investigation; and if the full solution of the problem should not be obtained, there will be enough of incidental advantage arising from the search to repay the teacher for all his trouble.

4. *Make experiments*, and note the results. Every teacher should have *one* experiment always on hand, and only one at a time. A farmer can not afford to give up his whole farm to experimental purposes, but he can set aside one little patch, and make one experiment every year, with great advantage both to himself and society. A teacher who never leaves the ruts, will go to sleep over his work; and, in the course of time, will either give up in disgust, or become a mere machine. But the teacher who accustoms himself to observe, investigate, and experiment, and who lays up the results of observation, investigation, and experiment for future use, can not fail to be so much interested in his work as to derive therefrom the highest pleasure, while, at the same time, he contributes his share to the elucidation of the grand problem of education.

5. *Take an educational journal.* Pay for it, read it, study it, and practise upon it.

PROF. AGASSIZ told the Teachers' Convention in Boston the other day, that in public education "too much was made of the memory, and too little of the mind"; that "the number of teachers is too small, and the number of scholars too large."

PRIMARY SCHOOLS—THEIR FAULTS AND REMEDIES.

No III.

BY Z. RICHARDS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Before speaking of the next reform needed in our primary schools, we wish to say, what might have been said before more appropriately, that, preceding the real work of the school-room, the children should enjoy the advantages of a well-conducted Kindergarten. We will not say that the German or Froebel's system is, in all its details, the very best for our country. It may need a little *Americanizing*. But the principles upon which it is based and the general plan of its work are natural, philosophical, and practical. Like the system of "object teaching", as first introduced into our country, the Kindergarten may be all the better when it has been modified by the eminently practical spirit of American ideas. Yet we would have every child put through a two or three years' course of Kindergarten training. They will be properly and thoroughly prepared to enter the first or lowest grade of the kind of primary school we are here recommending. We may speak of the Kindergarten more fully hereafter.

But we now turn from this digression to speak of the next reform which we deem necessary. As we are to speak of an industrial or exercise and play room, the term "reform" is not exactly appropriate; for, so far as we know, there are no primary schools in our country, if any where else, which have, as a necessary part of their course of training, an industrial and exercise department. This department we consider important and necessary in order to secure three essential results in early training: first, *the sound physical health of the children;* second, *rational and instructive amusement;* and third (not the least), *that training of the hands, the eyes, the muscles, and the tastes of the children preparatory to a useful life.*

The industrial room should be not only a concomitant of the school-room, but it should be so nearly contiguous to it that when any class has gone through its exercise in the school-room it can readily, and without any improper exposure, pass into the industrial room on the same floor. To carry out the plan in the most economical and satisfactory manner, there should be three rooms, or a multiple of three rooms, on each floor, and one

teacher for each room, whose special business should be to preside over and direct the exercises of each room. The proper number of pupils for these three teachers should not be more than one hundred and twenty, divided into three grades or classes. The industrial room should be nearly twice as large as the school-room, so as to furnish an assembling room for the whole number, and yet have spare room enough for any exercises which might be required in the presence of spectators. The seats should be light, strong, movable settees, without backs, as they will be used only occasionally, for short intervals, and will probably be removed very often from the main body of the room to give ample space for the general physical exercises and for the individual exercises, to be spoken of hereafter. The floor should be smooth and waxed.

A large portion of the wall space of this room, like that of the school-rooms, should have well-fitted cases, with shelves, drawers, and glass doors, which should be secured by appropriate locks. These cases should be used for receiving and preserving all the materials and instruments for industrial work and the apparatus for plays and exercises. For the boys there should be provided plain and well-adjusted models of handiwork, which could be easily taken apart for the careful examination of each part. These models should exemplify as many kinds of human industry as possible, upon a small scale of course. Materials of wood, metal, stone, clay, etc., should be provided, to be used in imitation of the models; also, nails, screws, hammers, saws, and other appropriate instruments, of as many kinds as possible. Regular fixed portions of time should be set apart for training and amusements in this room. No pupil should be allowed to use tools or materials, without some previously fixed purpose and design. The pupils should be taught to study out and design plans, and then execute them under the teacher's direction. The time for these exercises, like that for the exercises of the school-room, should be limited, and a part of any plan may be executed daily; but the pupils should never be allowed to give up any plan until they have executed it to the best of their ability. For the purpose of securing a more rapid and perfect execution, the same work may be repeated. It can be readily seen that an almost infinite variety of exercises and works may be performed, which would not fail to be intensely interesting and practically useful to the children.

For the girls there should be provision made upon the same

general principle, adapted to the various employments which are peculiar to women. It is hardly necessary to detail their work, if what we have just said about the exercises of the boys is understood and fully appreciated.

Then there are very many other exercises, in which both boys and girls may join for pleasure and for competition. Singing, gymnastics, suitable games and sports may have a regular and appointed place. Of course, all the exercises should be appropriate, well-planned, and reduced to a system.

In the most appropriate part of this room, there should be a platform, raised one or two steps, large enough for a row of fifteen or twenty pupils, where the teachers' places should be during the general exercises. There should be a well-adjusted blackboard and a piano upon the platform. A part of the exercises in this room should consist in drawing, printing, and writing such words as are names of materials and of instruments. All terms or names, which the teacher may find it necessary to use, by way of explanation or illustration, should be made as familiar to the *eye* as to the *ear*, so that the words can always be promptly and correctly read and spelled and their meaning understood.

A large portion of the materials and instruments could be provided by the pupils themselves, which may be considered their own property, but always subject to the inspection and control of the teacher; and at proper times their tools and work should be brought before the school officers and their parents for their inspection and examination.

It should be understood that one of the chief merits of the plan we propose consists in the uniform alternation of the exercises of the school-room and of the industrial-room; and that each scholar in each room should have *his whole attention absorbed* in the lessons and exercises, so that there may be no chance for mischief, nor any occasion for physical punishments.

Again, there should be a large, dry, and well-protected yard for open air exercises, *ad libitum*, as often as twice in five hours. In these open air exercises, one or more of the teachers should be present to superintend the children.

What we have said above is sufficient, perhaps, to show some of the glaring faults in our primary schools, and to suggest appropriate modes for correcting them. Our own impression is, that if the masses of the children in our primary schools could enjoy two or three years in an industrial play-room alone, con-

lucted upon the plan we have tried to lay down, they would ıave more practical ideas of life, and would be better prepared .o become useful citizens than they now usually are when they eave our best primary schools.

But let us add to this training in the industrial department that ;raining which we have proposed for the school-room, all of which can be carried on at the same time, and the result will ıhow a vast improvement upon our present methods. Where is :he boy or the girl that would not be delighted with such a course)f training?

Where children have been once fairly introduced into such a ıchool as we have tried to describe, the parents would find it lifficult to keep their children at home instead of at school.

If the views we have expressed do not impress our readers as :hey do us, it is not, we believe, because our views are incorrect,)ut because we have failed to express them properly.

In our next number, we propose to discuss the reforms needed in our primary school readers and in the modes of training teachers.

THE NORMAL PROBLEM AGAIN.

BY S. H. WHITE, PEORIA, ILL.

In the editorial comments on our article in the March number of this journal, several questions are asked, bearing directly upon this important subject, which we venture to answer, more with a view to help forward the solution of the problem than for the purpose of mere discussion.

At the outset, we wish to be understood as not opposed to well conducted teachers' institutes. We have too abiding a confidence in their efficiency as an agent in the work of making better teachers. Our article stated that they are of "incalculable benefit in giving suggestions to the more intelligent and experienced class of teachers and in awakening a new educational spirit." Its purpose was not to underrate their influence, but to protest against the reliance upon them as the only means of professional instruction below normal schools of the highest grade. We also tried to show the desirability of normal schools of a primary grade in a complete system of professional instruction.

We will grant that even if a sufficient number of such schools were established, not *all* teachers would avail themselves of their privileges, but, at the same time, we venture the opinion that the deficiency would not be so great as "nearly or quite one-half." And it seems reasonable that it should be so. A desire for the greatest professional excellence would induce those preparing to teach, to attend an institution especially devoted to the work of preparation. The higher public appreciation of the services of those who have made such special preparation, would be another strong inducement to lead them in the same direction.

It is suggested that institutes are necessary to give normal instruction to graduates of high schools and colleges, and the question is asked, "How else can they receive normal training?" Without doubting the value of attendance upon a lengthened institute to such, we venture to suggest that such an opportunity is not all they need. Actual work in instruction and school management under the eye and direction of an experienced teacher should be done by all. Of so great importance is this considered to be by those who have had experience as teachers in normal schools, that they will not venture a full opinion concerning a candidate's fitness to teach until such trial has been had. It has often turned out that those of correct scholarship and excellent abilities, but having no such experience, have failed upon taking charge of the work of the school-room. It is suggested also that, in the case of this class of persons, a longer time than is given to an institute should be devoted to a careful review of the studies taught in the common schools. In most of the high schools but little or no time is given to these studies; and there are but very few who will claim that the average knowledge of a pupil in these studies upon entering the high school, is a sufficient preparation for the same pupil to teach them after a lapse of four years. We are of opinion that the normal training of a graduate of a high school should embrace a careful review of the common studies with a view to the work of teaching, a study of school management, and practice in the school-room under a training teacher.

From what has been said thus far, our plan of a system of normal instruction for a State may be seen to comprise a single school of high grade for the preparation of persons to occupy the highest positions in the administration of the school system of the State, as local superintendents and teachers of the highest grade; a series of schools of lower grade for the benefit of the

mass of teachers, and institutes for the benefit of teachers of all classes. This plan is the result of a careful study of the workings of the normal schools of the country and some experience in both normal and institute work.

Of course this is only a plan, a sort of forecast of the future in the light of the past, and, allowing that it is complete as a plan, it may be quite difficult to put into operation.

The question of securing the attendance of "even a majority of teachers upon elementary normal schools", involves various considerations, but we will answer it in brief by venturing the opinion that, if the schools were established, the desire of teachers to improve themselves, partly for the sake of being prepared for better work, partly for individual advantage, and the demand of the people for better instruction in their schools, would gradually fill them up, till not only a majority but a very large majority of teachers will have had these advantages.

We are sorry that we have not at hand statistics showing definite facts in this matter. In their absence the best we can do is to state facts and draw inferences. The annual attendance in the normal department of the Normal University in Illinois is about 450, of which number from twenty to twenty-five per cent. reside in the county where the university is located. Of this proportion from two-thirds to three-fourths remain in the university one year or less. The whole number of teachers in the county is not more than 400. Now if a county employing 400 teachers has continually in a normal school from 90 to 110 students, from two thirds to three-fourths of whom remain not to exceed a year, we think it quite probable that more than half its teachers have received normal instruction. By reference to statistics about the same state of facts will be found to exist in the normal schools at Oswego, N. Y., and Trenton, N. J. We refer to these three institutions because they are of sufficient age to have a well-established status, and are located in counties having about the same population as a great many other counties in the country. In more thickly settled communities where normal schools have been long established, the proportion from the immediate neighborhood is much greater. The Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, in his report for 1868, states that *eighty per cent.* of the students in the normal schools of that State live within twenty miles of their respective schools. In the newer States the per cent. of students in the normal

schools residing in the counties where the schools are located, varies from thirty to sixty, or even greater.

That these schools are state institutions does not materially affect the question, since so large a per cent. of their students remain in them not to exceed one year.

The normal school of Peoria County, Illinois, has been established so short a time—between three and four years—that its experience can not be fully measured as yet. Two or three facts may be stated, to be taken for what they are worth. During the year previous to the one just closed, about twelve per cent. of those receiving certificates from the county superintendent, had been pupils in the school. During the year just passed, the number had increased to thirty per cent., while of those receiving certificates for teaching during the coming season, the great majority thus far have been under its instruction.

Our communication is already too long to allow consideration of other important subjects connected with this great problem, and which the friends of education must carefully consider before a full solution is reached. The questions of expense to the people and to the individual, of wages, of permanency in the profession, permanency of the profession, and others, must be met.

INSTRUCTION OF IMBECILE CHILDREN.

MR. EDITOR: Being in Columbus some time since, I visited, in company with two friends, a noble institution too little known by our people,—an institution that may well be called one of the ripest fruits of Christian civilization. I refer, of course, to the State Asylum for Imbecile Youth. One might not unnaturally suppose that to look upon the "innocents" therein gathered would be a painful experience; but he would find the preconception of the scene very different from the reality. I have seldom been more deeply moved than by what I saw on that occasion, and my visit was one of unmixed pleasure. As I went from one school-room to another, and noticed the gradual unfolding of intellectual powers, which, in the beginning, were but the lowest germs of mind, I was struck, as I have never been before, by the wonderful, almost infinite, power of training. Indeed, in this school the work seems not so much a training as a creation of mind.

Said one of my friends very aptly, after having looked through all the departments of the school, "Whoever would teach should come here to learn." Certainly nowhere else could be seen so fine an illustration of the value of object teaching. It is the only method employed or that can there be employed in all the primary work, and thus the teachers are effectually shut out from the use of all other methods, and are compelled to rely on the only natural and philosophic one.

In the lowest grade we found lessons in color and form going on. To teach the former, cups of different colors with as many balls of corresponding colors were used. The problem for the child to solve was to fit the balls into the cups of corresponding colors. Another piece of apparatus used for the same purpose is a board with circles of different colors painted on it with numerous holes to receive button-topped pegs having colors the same as those of the circles. The child's task is the same as the one above-mentioned, except that it is somewhat more difficult,—that is, to fill the holes in each circle with pegs of the right color.

The apparatus for teaching form is exceedingly simple. Blocks of wood of different shapes and a board with notches to receive these blocks are placed before the learner. The teacher gives the child a block, which it proceeds to fit into its proper receptacle. This sometimes requires many trials, and occasionally a suggestion from the teacher.

The general difficulty to be overcome in teaching children of healthy intellects—the fixing of the attention upon the object to be considered—is, of course, greatly magnified in teaching imbeciles. In some cases in the lowest classes, it seemed almost impossible for the child to fix its vision and attention on the object—in the color lesson, for instance—for a single second. The teacher, holding the ball in her hand, would say to her pupil in a kind but decisive voice, calling her by name, "Look at it!" "Look at it!" and, after two or three repetitions, the feeble will of the child would begin to assert itself; the roving gaze would be concentrated on the ball, and it would be quickly seized and fitted into its appropriate cup.

In teaching reading, the word-method is followed strictly. The words—which, in the beginning of the course, are all names of objects—are printed on slips of card-board, and the child is taught each word by associating it with its appropriate object.

In the lower grades, playthings of various kinds, such as jump-

ing-jacks, blocks, strings of buttons, etc., are furnished to each desk, and between lessons the child amuses itself with these. The one object seems to be to keep the mind awake, without too much taxing its feeble powers,—and thus amusement in these schools becomes a very important part of their training.

In the highest department the pupils read in the fifth reader, study arithmetic, geography, and grammar, draw, and write compositions. Some of the letters shown us, in correctness of spelling and grammar, and in excellence of the subject matter and penmanship, would do no discredit to the pupils in corresponding grades of our city schools.

Most of the inmates of the asylum are feeble in body as well as mind, and, of course, physical training receives a large share of attention. The last visit we made in the institution was to the large and beautiful room used for exercises in free gymnastics. The children had already taken their places for exercise with their wands in their hands. After the usual course of exercises with these wands, exercises with dumb-bells and with rings followed—the time in all being marked by the music of a piano played by one of the teachers. I have never seen these several classes of exercises performed with more vigor and spirit, or in more exact time, in any school. One of the children then sang a solo, the school joining in the chorus. The exercise closed with a cotillion, danced in excellent time and with perfect decorum, one of the teachers calling the figures.

I have neither time nor desire to moralize. Everything I saw was suggestive. It seemed to me that in the course pursued here, could be seen the very foundation rock upon which the science of education is based. Trusting that what I saw may suggest to others some hints as to what correct teaching is, I send you this hasty sketch. J. H.

THOUGHTS ON TEACHING READING AND WRITING TO BEGINNERS.

BY L. S. THOMPSON, SANDUSKY, O.

During the last few years, very considerable changes have taken place in the methods of teaching reading and writing to beginners. It has been the almost universal custom to teach reading first, and afterward, sometimes years afterward, to teach

writing. It was considered quite a discovery when teachers learned that children can learn writing at as early an age as reading. A few "progressives" are now causing the "stand-stills" to be astonished by proclaiming that reading and writing should be taught together. We shall not be surprised if, in five or ten years, we find our best schools teaching writing *first;* or rather teaching reading through the *script* form of letters instead of their *printed* form.

It took teachers centuries to learn that children can learn a whole word easier than a single letter of the alphabet. After using the Word-Method, they all wondered why they had not learned this fact sooner. Many book-makers and teachers of the Word-Method, or of the Word and Phonic methods combined, are still laboring under the impression that reading lessons for beginners should only contain short, easy words, or words of one syllable. Is this according to nature and to fact? Will not a child recognize the word "grandmother", after seeing it, as readily as the word "ox" under the same circumstances? Will he not fix in his mind the form of a word of two or three syllables (such as he hears frequently and knows the meaning of) as easily as a word of one syllable? Do children talk in monosyllables? There are more characteristic points of difference in a long word than in a short one, consequently a long word, if familiar in meaning and sound, presents less difficulties of recognition in reading than a short one. Do experienced readers miscall long or short words more frequently? Those who doubt the foregoing statements should try some experiments in their schools.

But are the advocates of the Word-Method sure they have found out the most rapid method of teaching reading? Would not the *Sentence-Method* or *Thought-Method* be still better? That is take a short sentence, familiar in sound and meaning, as the concrete unit to begin with, and treat it as a single word is treated in the Word and Phonic methods. If the Word and Phonic methods have produced *ready* readers, will not this Sentence or Thought method produce both ready and *thoughtful* readers? Try it, those who wish to know.

To produce ready readers, according to any method, it is of great advantage for the teacher to pronounce the words many times while the eye of the pupil is directed toward them, that the sound of each word and its form may reach the mind together. Drawling may thus be almost entirely overcome.

Professional teachers of writing formerly began their tion by giving lessons in straight and curved lines, "prin "hooks", "trammels", etc. A great majority of these t are still pursuing the same course, only a very few havin out that it is better to give whole letters first. A still number are up with the teachers of the Word-Method, a whole words first. Teachers of writing must learn, s sooner the better, that their methods of instruction must up with those of teachers of reading. The professional teacher generally wishes to avoid what he calls difficult nations or words which do not look well. But the child avoid them. His teacher requires him to write them spelling and other exercises; and if he is not taught t way to overcome these difficulties, he will fall into bad h

The conclusion of the whole matter is this: In a few y script forms of letters will be among the first, if not *t* lessons given to children in our schools. In order t highest results may be attained, and that skill in teachi mentary writing may keep abreast of skill in teaching r the teacher of reading must do both. The two must be on simultaneously, and a lack of skill in one department flect upon the other.

"BILLY-BONGS."

To WAMBA: The greater part of the water courses in lia can scarcely be said to exist except during the rainy in summer their beds are only indicated by pools of st water at intervals. These pools are called by the colonist *bongs*. The word may be found in Gerstaecker's Journey the World.

It brings to my mind the inhospitable plains of Austral formed in landscape, harsh in climate, cheerless alike to ey and to behold."

W. WAT

THE true aim of education is to prepare the mind to thi truth, the heart to enjoy it, the will to purpose it, and th to perform it.—ED.

Editorial Department.

—— Dr. Mayo's "talk" on "The Spirit of School Discipline" in our February issue has been very highly commended. The Fort Wayne (Ind.) *Gazette* declares that "this one article by Dr. Mayo is worth a year's subscription"; Supt. Pickard, of Chicago, pronounces it "worth its weight in gold to any and all teachers"; and the New York *Independent* suggests that it should be published as "a tract for teachers." The editorial on "The Salary Question" in the same issue has also received strong indorsement. An Ohio superintendent pronounces it "*sound*"; a prominent Ohio teacher believes it to be "Gospel truth, every word of it"; and the superintendent of one of the largest eastern cities declares it to be "wise and sound, only it does not go quite far enough." The question considered is one of great practical importance, and the time has come for its thorough discussion.

—— The speech of Gen. Garfield, which we publish in this number, is worthy of a wide and thoughtful consideration. It is a strong statement of the educational policy which this journal has long urged, and which, we are glad to believe, is to be the policy of the nation. The contrast between the American school system and those of Europe (Switzerland excepted) is as marked as the difference between republican and monarchical governments. On the continent of Europe public enterprises are undertaken and managed by the national government, and the people wait on its action. Railroads and schools are alike created and controlled by the ruling sovereign. In this country private enterprise and the organized action of the people in a local capacity are the sources of our greatest progress—a fact strongly stated in the report of Mr. Hippeau as cited by Gen. Garfield. Our school systems spring directly from, rest upon, and are managed by the people. We have, indeed, no purely *state* systems. The state government organizes the local communities, and stimulates and assists them in the work of public education. The life of the public schools is in the local communities. It would, of course, be speedier for the state government to organize and manage the schools without depending upon the local action of the people, but such a course would not be wise. The true school policy of this country is for the State to do everything which can not and nothing which can be safely left to the school districts. The great problem is to educate the people up to a wise and efficient management of their school interests. This will take time and discussion, but it is the sure way to prepare a people for self government, and, in the end, better educational results will be secured. It would be a serious mistake for the national government to assume the control of education in the States.

——We thank our correspondent for his prompt answer to our inquiry respecting the possibility of reaching even a majority of American teachers by two grades of normal schools. We grant that the two influences which he specifies, would induce many persons, preparing to teach, to attend a normal school. The examples cited indicate that a large majority of teachers would avail themselves of the advantages of normal training if it were placed within easy reach. But, not knowing how well the counties named are provided with high schools and other facilities for acquiring a higher education, we are not sure that the facts prove all that is claimed. Be this as it may, it is conceded that *all* teachers can not be brought into normal schools. What provision is to be made for those, whether a majority or a minority, who are educated in high schools, academies, seminaries, and colleges? Our friend insists that they all need a course of normal training and should attend a normal school. This may be true, but it is not a satisfactory solution of the difficulty. Many of these have received a good scholastic education, and can readily find employment as teachers. The majority of them intend to teach but a few terms, and, for this as well as for other reasons, will not be at the expense of taking a year's course in a normal school. Is it not best to meet the professional wants of this considerable class of teachers? They need more systematic normal instruction than the ordinary county teachers' institute furnishes, and a briefer and cheaper course than that provided by the regular normal school. Besides, we are anxious to see the facilities for acquiring more than an elementary education placed within reach of all our youth, and we do not see how two classes of higher institutions can be sustained at public expense in every county. Pupils intending to teach can attend free high schools if established within reach of them; but pupils not intending to teach can not attend the local normal school. It is true that the normal institute can not afford actual practice in school instruction and management, but much can certainly be done for a teacher without such practice; indeed, several of the best normal schools in the country do not furnish experimental instruction. But we forbear. We shall hereafter try to show the feasibility of a system of normal instruction co... (1) a sufficient number of state normal schools with two courses to meet the demand for thorough professional instruction and training; (2) a series of normal institutes or temporary normal schools for the better preparation of temporary teachers; and (3) an efficient system of county and local institutes. Meanwhile, we shall be glad to have any other plan advocated in ou... We hope Mr. White will continue the discussion which he has so well begun.

——A "German Teacher" writes us expressing great surprise at Mr. Wickersham's statement in our March issue (p. 83) that 'the school attendance in Prussia does not embrace a greater percentage of the school going population than it does in other European countries that have no compulsory laws," and he cites the utterance of Gambetta (p. 109) respecting the French defeat as evidence that the statement is not correct. We think our correspondent misunderstands Mr. Wickersham's position. The "other European countries", referred to, are,

doubtless, Holland and Switzerland. It is stated by credible authority that Holland has no compulsory law, and yet that education there is as universal as in Germany. It is also stated that Switzerland has no *national* compulsory system; that several of the cantons have no compulsory law, and that school attendance is as general in these cantons as in those that have a compulsory law. It is also claimed that the school attendance of Germany is due to the appreciation of education by the German people, and that, were the laws repealed, the schools would continue as full as they now are; that to attribute the universal education in Germany to compulsion does injustice to the German people. Of course every well informed person knows that the school attendance of Prussia is vastly superior to that of France, England, Spain, and other European countries which have no adequate and efficient school systems. Our correspondent, who is a native of Switzerland and who taught there over four years before coming to this country, gives this oldest republic in the world the credit of first introducing the compulsory system; and he assures us that the Swiss people would not change the system for any price. Is this true of the Swiss nation or only of several of the cantons? Our correspondent is also surprised at Mr. Hoar's statement respecting the illiteracy of foreigners in Massachusetts. He thinks that this ignorance comes from Ireland and England, which is doubtless true. The German, Swiss, Danish, and Swedish emigrants who settle in this country, are not illiterate. Mr. Hoar's remark had no reference to compulsory laws, and we cited it simply to show how universally the voluntary school system of Massachusetts is reaching the native population. We wish that every country in Europe had as efficient a school system as Germany, and it may be that to secure general school attendance there, compulsory laws may be necessary. Such laws can be enforced in monarchical governments. We heartily accept all our correspondent claims respecting the intelligence of the Germans and their industrial skill. The present honorable position of Germany is a conclusive proof of the power of general education.

——It is a mistake, we think, to attribute the general desire for education by the Germans to their compulsory system. This has doubtless had its influence, but it is more an expression than a cause. The source of this feeling must be learned from the peculiar history of the German people. From the time of the Reformation it has been a part of their social fundamental law that every child should receive some education. The same law has prevailed in New England as a part of the Puritan system. In both cases it originated in the Protestant idea that each man is an individualized being and must read the Bible for himself and otherwise look after his own personal interests, religious and secular. The French peasants, and the poor emigrants from England who settled early in the South and who are still largely represented in the old country, have never had their own individuality and high sense of personal responsiblity developed, and, as a necessary consequence, education has not flourished among them. Whether this portion of our population, largely represented in the South by the class known as the "Poor Whites", will avail itself of the advantages of education, when provided, remains to be seen. Here, if any where in this country, is the

field for the trial of compulsory education. Compulsion is probably the only means of lifting the Catholic peasantry of France out of their present deep ignorance. But the Germans of Prussia, the inheritors of the Lutheran ideas of education, and the descendants of the Puritans, wherever found, will educate their children at all hazards. A compulsory law would only fall in with their fixed ways and, at best, could effect but a very small margin of the population.

——THE *New England Homestead* contains a well sustained educational department, edited by M. C. Stebbins, of the Springfield High School, Mass. The articles discuss a great variety of educational topics of popular interest and are unusually fresh and practical. We wish that the cause of education was as well presented in every paper in the country. In a recent editorial Mr. Stebbins takes a survey of the "Educational Symptoms" of the times. Of "the many things in the air" which promise reform in our school methods, is the conviction among sensible and thoughtful teachers that we are teaching too much of some things and too little of others; that we are teaching some things at the wrong time, and are thus worrying young brains with old studies. He predicts that the next few years will bring about several important changes in these and other directions. "It is probable", says he, "that in the schools of the future, scholars under fourteen years of age will spend much less time upon arithmetic than they now do: that the science of language as a mechanism, and the science of language as a medium of thought, will be more clearly defined and separated, and, as a consequence of this, the present lamentable muddle about grammar will be abated; that the most readily observed facts, and the least abstruse of the well established laws of physical science, will be taught earlier than they now are; that what is silly and diluted beyond the two-hundredth potency, in the objective method of teaching, will be eliminated, and the residuum turned to excellent account; and that special attention will be directed to secure to the mind, in childhood, more perfect master over the body, so that this wonderful combination of bone, muscle and nerve shall be a more willing, pliable and profitable servant of its more wonderful invisible master. The serious question for teachers to answer, is whether in this onward movement they will be heroes in the strife, or dumb, driven cattle."

——IN a primary school, which we visited a few months since, we found one of the standard intellectual arithmetics, which has baffled many a grammar school pupil, in the hands of the little children, taking their first lessons in addition. The improper use of a book, designed for older pupils, was probably not the teachers fault, but her "drill" greatly increased our sympathy for the abused children. The lesson was the first in the book and the "analysis" (?) which she made them repeat over and over, was as follows: "Five and four are how many? As many as the sum of five and four which is nine. Therefore five and four are nine." We admired her zeal and perseverance but discounted her wisdom. Whatever may be the value of such a drill for older pupils, it is certainly a poor way to teach addition to little children. If there is logic in it, which is questionable, there is no common sense. What more is needed than the simple

question and answer? "Five and four are how many? Five and four are nine." In a school of higher grade we once saw pupils put through such a logical analysis as this: "Three fourths of twelve are how many? Three fourths of twelve are as many as three times one fourth of twelve, which is one of the four equal parts of twelve, which is three. If three is one fourth of twelve, three fourths are three times three, which is nine. Therefore three fourths of twelve are nine." Is not such a logical rigmarole as this enough to make a bright child stupid? The dullest pupils in arithmetic, that we have ever taught, had been most persistently drilled, when young, in the repetition of formal analyses, the logic of which was beyond their comprehension. Analysis has an important place in teaching arithmetic, but the analysis taught little children should be simple and free of mere logical verbiage. Is not this analysis, for example, sufficiently formal?—"Three fourths of twelve are how many? One fourth of twelve is three and three fourths are three times three which is nine. Three fourths of twelve are nine."

——THE concluding portion of Miss Lathrop's report to the Cincinnati Board of Education deserves a worthier setting than our editorial pages furnish, but, as we like to see our own thoughts in good company, we quote a few sentences:

"It should still be our aim, as in the past, to make, first of all, of those who come to us, *women*, and next *skillful teachers*. To do either of these requires time and patience. The result of our labor will not be equally apparent upon all. No amount of dictation of what should be done in the school-room will make skillful workmen there. Our energies must be mainly directed towards finding out what there is of genius and efficiency in our pupils, and putting them into conscious possession of their own *latent forces*. Then we can set them about achieving their own success. *One must work out his own salvation to make him worth saving at all.* A teacher is not worthy of success who can not, by virtue of courage and perseverance, *win it* and *crown herself*. She must work out her own special methods, having come to understand general principles. The reason for these principles, to be found in the nature of mind itself, she must so apprehend, and come so thoroughly to love and revere, that a violation of them will seem to her a sin—a sin against the children whom she instructs, against herself as Gods interpreter of truth to these children, and against God Himself, whose laws are direct and irreversible. It must be our aim to send out our graduates with a fair comprehension of the laws of human thought, a teachable spirit, a love for their work, and an indomitable determination to succeed. Such being the result of our work, the Cincinnati Normal School will not have "lived and labored" in vain.

NATURAL SCIENCE IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Can we introduce the natural sciences into our public schools? Certainly we can, if we have competent teachers. Shall we then? This is a different question, and needs care in the answering.

By a sort of common consent, there has grown into use a stereotyped course or curriculum of study, which, except in our high schools, does not include the natural sciences. By most, a teacher interested in natural history would be thought to go far beyond the proprieties of his vocation if he taught his pupils

mineralogy, ornithology, botany, conchology, and the like. Many parents would think such instruction very absurd and almost a fraud upon the child, who should, in their opinion, be kept at his spelling and multiplication table. These, of course, are needed, but if, by the intercalation of a study having in itself a new kind of stimulus and rare quickening power to the young mind, the old routine studies are more easily and quickly learned, there is no loss but a decided gain. This is, we think, the first effect of introducing into our schools the more easily learned branches of natural history. The very first work of the teacher in introducing the young immortal to the great mental labor of life, on which both happiness and usefulness depend, is to make that introduction a pleasant one. Too many children are merely dragged along the early paths of learning.

The late Prof. John P. Norton, of New Haven, was reported as a dull boy, who felt all his studies to be miserable tasks. He loved, however, to gather fragments of rocks and minerals, and tried his young mind in attempts to classify them by their colors. At last he found a teacher who not only admired his pretty stones, but gradually taught him their names and the true methods of classification. This was the opening of a new world to him. His mind was quickened and filled with enthusiasm. He took hold of his other studies and no longer found them a drudgery, and moved on with rapid strides until, after most thorough scientific training in Scotland and Holland, he was elected, at the age of twenty-four years, Professor of Agricultural Chemistry in Yale College. He died at the early age of thirty, but his advent to New Haven was the first in a train of causes which finally led to the establishment of the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College, now one of the most useful and honored institutions of its class in the land. This Connecticut boy might have utterly failed of his true mission in life, had he not chanced to find a teacher with the requisite knowledge and sympathy to lead him forth and introduce him to Nature, the great teacher, under whose kind and encouraging hand he was led on to great usefulness and honor. There are probably in every school boys and girls who might be similarly led and quickened. There is something in the study of nature which has a rare power to stimulate and elevate the student. Hence we see no reason why such a means of education should be denied our boys and girls.

Every teacher should have some knowledge of the natural sciences. It makes comparatively little difference just what that knowledge may be, if it can only be communicated to his pupils. It may be botany, and he encourages the boys and girls to search the woods and meadows for flowers, which he teaches them to analyze and classify. It may be mineralogy or geology, and, if he is located in a favorable region, he may make his boys field geologists, and they may know where to find every important mineral or fossil in the neighborhood. Suppose the teacher has upon his table the Reports of the Geological Survey of his State; it may become a book of almost daily reference. The pupils soon learn to fill up an outline map of the State, with the ranges of the various geological formations. They learn to make geological sections on the blackboard. If in vacation or in holidays they have made any explorations or excursions, it is with keen and watchful eyes, and on their return they tell their

teacher what they have seen, and bring forward any specimens they may have gathered. Now all this is education, and education of the highest value, because it is wonderfully stimulating to the young mind. These minds come in contact with Nature, the same great teacher who taught Newton and Cuvier and Agassiz. These boys and girls may not become professional naturalists or philosophers, but their minds have received an impulse which can never be lost.

There is not only all this, but there is much more: there is moral safety in these studies. Suppose the home is a dull one, as too many homes are; the children now have new resources for the long winter evenings in their cabinets and microscopes and magic lanterns and extemporized electrical machines, etc. All helpful books they can buy or borrow are brought into requisition, by the aid of which they may study their collections of minerals, fossils, bottled bugs, and the like. Boys, beginning thus in childhood, may grow up to manhood so absorbed in these innocent yet improving ways of spending spare hours, as hardly to know of the existence of saloons and other vile places, which so often tempt boys away from dull homes to their ruin.

It may be further remarked that this kind of instruction is in harmony with the decided tendencies of this age. Science in all its forms was never so honored as now. That teacher to day who ignores this fact, and who is not himself adjusted to some of the many phases of Nature, the great teacher, is hardly fitted for his vocation. He may glory in setting copies in copy-books, in teaching the "Rule of Three", and in doling out dry crusts of knowledge, but it is almost certain that, from his school, there will never go forth any bright and quickened minds. He has no idea that there can be any teacher greater than himself, and hence Nature with her volume knocks at his school-house door in vain. Such a teacher must hopelessly fail even in some of the studies which he attempts to teach. He can never teach such a study as geography so that the pupil will have vivid conceptions of the earth and of the physical phenomena of its surface. To such a teacher a map conveys little meaning. River systems, lakes, mountain ranges, etc., are as meaningless to him as if a child had drawn a jumble of lines upon a piece of blank paper. On the other hand, a good teacher of geography might, except for the purpose of review, dispense with a text book altogether. He takes his little boys and girls out into the school-yard, and gives them a lesson in the use of their eyes. They find level ground with elevations, a low place in which a tiny stream flows after a rain, soil in which trees are growing, gravel and sand in which nothing grows, etc. The teacher takes a compass, and shows them which side of the yard is the north side, which the south, and the east and the west, and then they take their slates and draw the yard as best they can. Now in that pleasant work in the school-yard, which is as good as play to the children, there is involved half of the science of geography. From that yard and from acquisitions of definite facts, which may be gained in rambles not far away, the wise and nature-loving teacher will impart to his pupils such vivid conceptions of real things that the child has only to project these conceptions out from him over the earth in order to have the whole foundations of geographical science well and beautifully laid in his young mind. From the brooklets the boy finds and studies after

a rain, he learns how the drainage of water takes place. He makes a little map of what he finds. From this he easily passes on to the knowledge of the river systems of vast continents; and so with all the rest. But generally nothing of this kind is done, and the poor innocent child is dragged or pushed, or coaxed or driven, through some pre-eminently stupid geography by an equally stupid teacher, until he knows as little of the surface of the earth as he does of the figures on Achilles' shield. It must have been one thus educated (if such a general blur of knowledge may be called education) who recently seriously proposed to dig a canal from Lake Erie to Chatauque Lake, and thus draw the water from Lake Erie into the Ohio River, in time of low water in that stream. A child who had any distinct idea of surface drainage, would have known that the little Chatauque Lake was high above the level of Lake Erie.

Again, it should not be overlooked that many of the natural sciences afford the very best subjects for object lessons, now becoming so popular in our schools. The objects chosen for study and illustration, may be those natural objects which are capable of easy and scientific grouping. For the simpler objects, botany affords admirable materials with its leaves, fruits, etc. Entomology will furnish a rich supply of admirable materials, with its butterflies, grasshoppers, beetles, etc. Children would thus be taught to observe carefully, and *all good observation is good education.* They would also begin to study about objects so interesting to them. They would have their minds wakened and stimulated. We knew a boy so interested in collecting and studying insects, that he fitted for college and entered for the sole purpose of learning Latin and Greek, so that he might thoroughly understand the Latin and Greek names used in his favorite science. During the late war, he was a United States quartermaster in the army, and handled millions of the government money; but he never lost a favorable opportunity to catch a new spider, and it is possible that he is better acquainted with the subject of spiders than any other man in our country. "The child was father to the man."

Now, in our common schools, there should be afforded enough of instruction to bring out in distinct recognition any latent talent which the child may possess. Each teacher should have power to leave the weary and monotonous path of prescribed methods, at least so far as to lay plans for the development of those inborn tastes and idiosyncracies of pupils, in the careful development of which the highest triumph of teaching lies. For this nothing is better adapted and nothing more successful than the introduction of the child to Nature. Her lessons are object lessons, and all her teachings group themselves into the most beautiful and profound sciences.

THE MENTAL DISCIPLINE THEORY.

One of the leading dailies of the country brings its logic to bear on the question, "How is the mind to be cultivated?" and certain current views respecting the inutility of disciplinary studies are followed to the inevitable conclusion, that

the only way in which any human being can acquire mental discipline is to avoid all school education and enter at once upon "the activities of life." The logic which leads to this conclusion is perfect and irresistible. If the views referred to are correct, it is questionable, as the editor says, "whether persons are educated at all in our schools and colleges"; whether the shortest way to the right is not to get rid altogether of all "that vast and costly machinery which we *lignify* with the title of educational."

We commend this conclusion to those admirers of the anti-discipline argument, who are seeking to get some hing va'uable out of school training by abolhing the present curriculum and substituting therefor something more "practal." Success is not to be thus attained, for "the testimony which eminent en have born against *all* the different branches", shows that colleges and hools not only are but necessarily *must* be "promoters of ignorance and ltivators of mental sluggishness." The shortest and the only way to mental wer is to abolish all our schools and fall back on the *spontaneous* development the mind in the discharge of the practical duties of life. It is, of course, preme folly for a youth to pass laboriously through a course of study, if, at the d, he must necessarily find himself "in the most essential part of human owledge", in the rear of those who remained "in the current of practical e, ideas and intelligence." Nor ought the anti disciplinists to shrink from the gical deduction of their views. Have not the schools and the colleges of New ngland produced an amount of mental imbecility, sluggishness, and ignorance striking contrast with the intellectual force, activity, and inventive skill hich characterize the unschooled masses of Virginia? To what is the intelctual barrenness of England as compared with Spain due, if it is not the roduct of her schools and universities? Out on all scholastic schemes of ental discipline! As the Red Indian acquires swiftness and agility by the ctual pursuit of animals, so let all persons seek their mental gymnastics in he actual pursuits and occupations of life. Instead of scholastic stupidity and mbecility, let us have the acumen and strength which spontaneous development alone can furnish!

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The next annual meeting of the National Educational Association will be held in the City of Boston, Mass., on the 6th, 7th, and 8th days of August, 1872. The forenoon and evening of each day will be occupied by the General Association, and the afternoon of each day by the four Departments—Elementary, Normal, Superintendence, and Higher Education. The officers intrusted with the duty of making the arrangements, are making good progress, and a full announcement will be made at an early day. The programme of exercises will include several of the most important educational topics now receiving consideration. No labor will be spared necessary to make the meeting a success.

E. E. White, *President.*

S. H. White, *Secretary.*

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of this journal due him, we always remail it.

—— The bill codifying and revising the school laws of Ohio, has been carefully considered by the School Committee of the House, and reported back with several amendments. There is good prospect that the bill will pass.

——Supt. W. E. Crosby, Davenport, Iowa, is editing an educational department in the *Western Weekly*, published in that city.——Warren McClintock, late superintendent of the public schools of London, O., died of consumption Feb. 29th, 1872. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1864 the first scholar of his class, and took charge of the schools of Waynesville, O., in 1866, and those of London in 1867, filling both positions with good success.——S. R. Thompson, late Principal of the Marshall College Normal School, West Va., is Professor of Agriculture in the University of Nebraska.

—— We learn that Hon. B. G. Northrop, Secretary of the Board of Education of Connecticut, has received a liberal offer to take charge of the school system of Japan. He is eminently qualified for the position, and we congratulate the Japanese authorities on their wise choice. Mr. Northrop has been officially connected with the schools of New England for many years, and, in the discharge of his official duties, he has shown rare tact and discretion and remarkable energy. He has made a thorough study of systems of school organization and methods of instruction, and his educational views are practical and sound. His appointment is an additional assurance that the wonderful movement in Japan is to be successful in introducing modern civilization in its best form. It is the intention of the Japanese government to introduce the English language into the schools in place of the Chinese which has long been the medium of school instruction. It will be an important part of Mr. Northrop's work, should he accept the appointment, to organize English schools throughout the empire, and, to this end, he will need the assistance of a considerable number of American teachers.

Cincinnati.—The forty-second annual report for the school year ending June 30, 1871, is a very full exhibit of the condition and progress of the schools. Among the changes suggested by President Ferry is the transfer of another grade of pupils from the district schools to the intermediate, the placing of the high schools entirely under the management of the board of education, and the committing of the entire control of the public library to an independent board of managers. The committee of the German department and the assistant superintendent, J. F. Wisnewski, agree in recommending the organization of a German normal department in the City Normal School. Supt. Hancock's report is the best, we think, that he has issued. We are so well pleased with what he says on written examinations that we shall publish the article in our next number. He opposes the making of history a school study, and recommends its introduction as a reading exercise. We learn from the report that the number of different pupils enrolled in the schools during the year, not including the colored schools, was 27,140, with an average daily attendance of 20,893. The number of white youth in the city, between six and sixteen years of age, was 58,947. The average number of teachers employed, including special teachers, was 507, an increase of 57 over the previous year. The average number of pupils in daily attendance to each teacher was 42.5. The total expenditures for the year were $717,969.43.

HIRAM COLLEGE.—This institution, formerly under the able direction of General Garfield, has since asumed the title and work of a college, and has graduated several classes. We were present at the last commencement and were much pleased with the ability and culture of the graduating class, consisting of five gentlemen and four ladies. The present college classes contain the following numbers: Freshmen thirteen, sophomores twelve, juniors ten, seniors nine. The whole number of students enrolled this year, including those of the preparatory department, is about one hundred and sixty—the largest attendance for several years. The larger part of the income of the college is derived from tuition, and there are few institutions in the country, which, in the past twenty years, have done so much for education with so small a cash capital. The present endowment does not exceed $30,000, but the institution has a prospective fund of $75,000, secured by will. The present faculty consist of eleven competent teachers. The Rev. B. A. Hinsdale is the efficient president. This institution has long done an important work in the preparation of teachers, and, for seven years past, it has furnished a gratuitous course of Biblical and theological lectures, and young men preparing for the ministry have free instruction in the college.

—— HARVARD UNIVERSITY has lately established the degrees of doctor of philosophy and doctor of science. The latter is to be conferred upon bachelors of science who shall have resided at least two years at the University, and have pursued during three years a course of scientific study in at least two subjects. Candidates for the degree must pass a thorough examination, make some contribution to science or some special scientific investigation. Persons who are both bachelors of art and bachelors of science may receive the degree of doctor of science after a two years' course of study. The degree of doctor of philosophy may be conferred on bachelors who pursue a two years' course of study, pass a thorough examination, and present a satisfactory thesis in any one of the following departments: philology, philosophy, history, political science, mathematics, physics, or natural history. . . . Harvard adopts also the sensible plan of conferring the degree of M.A. only on those who, after taking the bachelor's degree, pursue at the University a course of liberal study for at least a year, and pass a satisfactory examination on it. In all these cases the study must be pursued under the approval of the Academic Council.——The University of Michigan is to be added to the list of institutions that believe its degrees ought to mean something. It confers the degree of M.A. on graduates who shall have been engaged for three years in professional, literary, or scientific studies, and on those who for one year shall have pursued two designated courses of study, have passed an examination in three studies elected by the candidate from these two courses, and have prepared a thesis on one of the subjects chosen for examination.—*N. Y. Independent.*

INDIANA.—The State Normal School, which was opened in January, 1870, recently graduated its first class, composed of four young ladies who had completed the elementary course. The exercises were unique and appropriate. Each young lady, except Miss Mary Oakey, who was too ill to be present, gave a practical illustration of her ability to teach by giving a lesson to a class of pupils, which was followed by the reading of the graduating essay. Miss Louise Barbour's lesson and essay were on Geography; Miss Lessie Harrah's on Reading; and Miss Fannie Scott's on Object Teaching. They all acquitted themselves with great credit, and the large audience was satisfied that there is such a thing as normal training. We are indebted to our correspondent for a full report of the exercises, clipped from one of the Terre Haute papers. The account is marred by a minute personal description of the

young ladies, their appearance, dress, *age*, etc.—an inexcusable offense against good taste and propriety. All reports received by us commend the efficiency of Principal Jones and the corps of teachers associated with him. Their aim is to make the institution a thorough normal school, one worthy of the confidence of the profession. It is to be regretted that the attendance has not been larger, but the future success and usefulness of the institution depend more upon the character of the first graduates than upon their number. The teachers of Indiana have made marked professional progress in the past ten years, and the demand for normal training must soon crowd the State Normal School with students.——We assisted in conducting a teachers' institute in Lafayette, the first week of January. We have seldom instructed a body of teachers more completely out of the ruts, or better prepared to adopt advanced methods.

West Virginia.—We have received no information respecting the action of the Legislature on the school question, and, take it for granted, that the school law has not been materially changed. We are indebted to the *Wheeling Register* for the reports of the superintendents of Ohio county and of the city of Wheeling to the State Superintendent. Supt. Faris states that a free school system has been established in Ohio county more than twenty years, and there is very little, if any, opposition to the schools. Many of the tax payers feel that, if they are required to support the schools, parents should be compelled to send their children to school. He states that the majority of the teachers employed are women, and that they are "not a whit behind the male teachers." The schools are well supplied with houses and apparatus.

Wheeling.—Supt. Williams gives in his report a succinct statement of the origin and progress of the public schools of Wheeling. The first public school in the city was opened in October, 1848, under the law providing a joint board of education for the city and county. The city was made an independent district by a law passed Feb. 23, 1849, and March 27th, 1849, the first city board of education was organised. In April, 1850, the present superintendent succeeded Mr. Haile as principal of the school opened in 1848. The population of the city was then about 10,000, but the schools in the five wards did not enroll more than 1,000 pupils, and this ratio between the population and the school attendance continued for nearly fifteen years. The enrollment the past school year was one-sixth of the entire population, and the enrollment the current school year will reach nearly 4,000. The population of the city in July, 1871, was 23,104. The average monthly enrollment in 1870–71 was 2,333. The amount paid teachers was $29,562.50, and the total school expenditures were $37,989.43. A high school is needed to complete the system. We are glad to record the re-election of Supt. Williams.

—— The schools of Parkersburg are making progress. The Washington High and Grammar School, A. E. Warden, principal, reached last month an average attendance of 95 per cent. of the enrollment.——J. W. Hough has succeeded J. W. Cuppy as principal of the public schools of Wellsburg. The present enrollment is about 350.

New Jersey.—The last Legislature, by concurrent resolution, appointed a commission, consisting of seven persons, to examine the present educational system of the State, and prepare a bill embodying proposed improvements. This work has been done, and the bill submitted codifies existing laws and provides for the establishment of high schools, for state scholarships, a state board of education, and for inspectors of schools, one for each Congressional district, at a salary of $2,000 each—an intermediate officer between the state superintendent and the county superintendents, who are to be appointed by the state board. The bill adds $5,000 to the appropriation for the State Normal School.

BOOK NOTICES.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Its Officers and their Duties. By RANSOM H. GILLET, formerly Member of Congress, etc. New York: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

This is the most complete hand-book, showing in detail the machinery of our General Government, that has ever been published, so far as we know. It gives every thing one wants to know. Each department is taken up and considered in detail, so that one may know every thing concerning it. The duty of each subordinate officer is given. The work meets a want long felt and meets it well, and we commend it cordially to all who wish to know the detailed workings of our Government at Washington. The work is clearly written, and few inaccuracies of style or language were observed. Mr. Gillet hardly means what he says, when he states of certain clerks that "their salaries vary from eighteen to twenty-five hundred dollars", and of consuls-general that their salaries vary "from six to three thousand dollars." Mr. Gillet also uses the word "briefed", in reference to the making of an abstract of the contents of papers. The word may have a local usage in the Departments at Washington, but it is not a good word.

ANCIENT HISTORY; or, Old States and Empires. For Colleges and Schools. By JOHN LORD, LL.D. New York: Charles Scribner & Co.

This work is prepared by Dr. Lord, who has spent much of his life in historical studies. It is in three books: Book I. The Ancient Oriental Nations; II. The Grecian States; III. The Roman Empire. It is in all respects a thorough and valuable work. It is well and compactly written, and conveys all the information a student requires, unless he wishes to devote himself to more special historical treatises. The work will naturally stimulate young persons to enlarged study, and there should have been given references to the more important authorities. So fine a work should also have a number of maps, for history can not be well studied without exact geographical knowledge of the locations referred to. The map in the beginning of the volume is excellent, but it is not full enough.

A SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND. Illustrated with Maps. By J. J. ANDERSON, A.M. New York: Clark & Maynard.

This work is divided into three parts: Ancient Britain, England in the Middle Ages, and Modern England. Each part is illustrated with colored maps. These maps are in themselves a history. In map No. 1, we have Britain under the Romans, in which the old Roman names of the subdivisions of the island are retained, and we see the positions of the great walls of Agricola and Adrian. Map No. 2 shows the settlements of the Saxons and the Angles from the years 449 to 626 of the Christian era. We see countries of the West, South, and Middle Saxons, the Middle Angles, the South Folk Angles, etc. Map No. 3 gives us Britain in the time of Egbert, A.D. 827. In this map we find all the south end of the island, except Cornwall or West Wales, called Wessex, a contracted form for West Saxons. Essex is East Saxons, lying north of London, which has become changed from the old Latin name of Londinium. Map No. 4 gives us Britain at the death of Edward the Confessor, in the year 1068. In this map we find, for the first time, England, the land of the Angles, embracing all the island, except Scotland and Wales. The shires as Dorsetshire, Berkshire, etc., begin to appear. Map No. 5 shows Great Britain in its modern aspect. Map No. 6 gives central and southern Europe. On page 55 is also a small map of France. These maps are invaluable aids to the student. The work is, to our mind, written in a remarkably clear and vigorous style, always terse and always

graphic. It requires unusual ability in a writer of history to make the leading events prominent and give personal projection or relief to the great characters, and, at the same time, preserve a perfect historical continuity. Many histories are mere series of pictures and sketches, like gold beads strung upon the slenderest thread. Mr. Anderson succeeds in giving us a strong chain of gold, every part of it strong and bright. It is the dull places in our histories that make them repugnant to the young. We read this School History of England with voracious eagerness late into the night, and found no dull places. We can only regret that there was no such history of England when we were a boy. The notes are of great interest and value. The pronunciation of the proper names is a most valuable feature of the work. Questions are appended to each page, helpful doubtless to feeble-minded teachers. If the space occupied by them had been given to more of his interesting and capital notes, the work would suit us better. But in this matter Mr. Anderson's judgment is doubtless better than ours. The work is beautifully printed.

TEXT-BOOK OF GEOLOGY. For Schools and Colleges. By H. ALLEYNE NICHOLSON, M.D. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872.

We have had several American text books of geology of varying worth. The earlier ones were prepared before American geology had been sufficiently worked out by our geologists to enable the authors to illustrate the principles of the science by American facts. But in the last twenty years a vast work has been done in determining the geology of the United States and Territories and Canada. Prof. Dana's works have been regarded as peculiarly valuable, because he gives to American geological facts the precedence, and only adds facts from foreign geology as corroborative, except in certain cases where we have no American equivalents, and then he makes the foreign facts the more prominent. We are confident this is the true way to prepare text-books for American students. Unfortunately, we think, Dr. Nicholson goes back to the old method of using foreign geology chiefly. He says in his preface: "As to the plan of the work, it is sufficient to state that it is not based primarily upon American geology." The illustrations have been chiefly taken from Sir Charles Lyell's "Elements of Geology." The foreign character of the work is the great objection to it. There are great advantages in giving our people first of all a knowledge of their own country. They may visit important American localities, and become intensely interested in geological phenomena and sequences, while they will regard foreign facts and phenomena with only a dull and vague belief. Since there have been so many public surveys, State, National, and Canadian, it is possible to group the facts and principles into a most interesting and valuable treatise. A work for American schools and colleges ought to give prominence to such formations as are the more distinguishing features of this country. For example, the coal measures have in the United States their grandest development. There are six pages devoted to "coal measures" made up chiefly of figures of foreign plants and animals. We only know that that there are coal measures in *America* from the sentence that "the largest and most productive coal-fields in the world occur in Britain, North America, and Belgium." No reference is made to the vast deposits of coal found in formations higher than the true coal-measures, located in our Western States and Territories. We give this matter of coal as a sample of the whole book. The work is far behind the age, and, in our opinion, was never up to any age.

THE SCHOOL.—This is the title of a new educational journal, edited and published at the Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti. $1.50 a year. It has the form and size of *The Nation*, and presents a neat appearance. It has made a very promising beginning.

THE

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THE KITCHEN AND THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

BY REV. A. D. MAYO, CINCINNATI, O.

The two most effective colleges for young women in our country are the kitchen, where the female servant is trained for the American home, and the school-room, where the teacher learns the art of governing American society. Though not often regarded in the light of a university, we believe both these agencies are practically more efficient than the more pretentious seminaries established for the higher culture of womankind in our land.

The earthly end of all education for woman is to learn the art of making the home and shaping the social life of the State. The house-hold and society are the institutions most vital to the character and destiny of the nation, since the church and the government are what they are made by people trained in these primary schools of human existence; and both the home and social life in Christian lands are declared by common consent to be the province of woman. Whatever new avenues of industrial, professional, or civil activity may hereafter be opened for the woman of this country, the home and society will forever remain her base of operations; and she, who can wisely and powerfully wield these vital agencies, need not fear the rivalry of her sisters. The number of women who take exceptional positions, must always be smaller than the corresponding class

of men; and they, like men, will represent the average womanhood that control social life and the home.

There is a good deal of complaint now-a-days over the neglect of domestic training of young women in the more expensive class of families. This is doubtless a great mistake, but not so dangerous to the future home of our country as may be imagined. Indeed, what is lost at one end of society by this foolishness is gained at another. The "regulation" way of living for an American family that has come into the possession of wealth, is to set up a good house, far beyond the domestic or social capacity of the wife to manage, in which the "young ladies" are to "see life" and prepare for the eventful crisis of their fate—a splendid marriage. For the mother this new career is too often a life-long slavery to exhausting anxieties and toils; for the daughters, a destructive round of luxurious, effeminate, and selfish amusements. But in order that this huge machine should run without wreck, another set of women must be called in, far more important to the final success than either—the women servants. In every family of average respectability in city or village, one of these young women can now be found; and no household, such as we have referred to, can be navigated without several "first class" specimens of the sort on board. Probably wherever you find one young lady of American birth, now offering up herself on the altar of uselessness in the parlor, you meet two strong, wide-awake Irish or German "girls", learning in the kitchen how to take the reins when they fall from her dainty little hands.

What a wonderful seminary for all the duties and responsibilities of home is the American kitchen to the foreign-born young woman! She enters it a great, unorganized mass of energy; awkward, ignorant of good society, or the habits of a well-ordered home; a semi-barbarian in the estimate of the domestic life of the Republic. How fast she learns every thing necessary to the American home. Every faculty is strained by a competition of labor and an eagerness to rise as intense as rages "above stairs" in the higher realms of social ambition. There are no teachers so potent as necessity and self-interest—at least during all the earlier stages of scholarship. This Bridget or Minna goes in a huge block of native marble, and a dozen sculptors begin to cut and file and hammer away to bring her into a shapely domestic figure. The wise or otherwise directions of her mistress; the tempestuous antics of the children; the aristocratic airs of the

young ladies; the needs of the men, often better known to her than to the female "helpmeet" up stairs, the spectacle of society; the whole inside view of the family contrasted with the outside intimacy with the work people, traders, and hangers-on of a respectable house;—what a school is here for a bright girl bent on pushing herself! And all the time she knows very well that her chance to play the mistress in such a home in the whirligig of American life, is every way as good as either of the delicate young women now in the ascendant in the drawing-room. Every motive to study is concentrated on her, and she must be stupid, indeed, if she does not learn fast. The care of children is always a part of her duty, whatever may be her nominal part; indeed, if all she does to keep the home from going on the rocks were told, we might be more grateful to her than now.

The Catholic priests, just now, are exercised with the notion that, if they can keep the children of their flocks out of the public schools, their dominion is assured. But they seem to forget that the kitchen is the Catholic girl's high school; a seminary in which she studies with a "vim" and shrewdness she rarely puts into her life in the church. She learns there that all the goodness is not on the side of her own sect; that the great currents of American life are not through old medieval ruts; that if she would get on she must "look out for No. 1" as well as go to confessional. The American kitchen is a seminary of religious and social ideas no less than domestic capacity; and the young women there are studying as no girls study in Vassar or Oberlin. It is wonderful to see the results of this schooling. There are multitudes of young women of European birth now in this country, who, in all the requisites of the accomplished house-keeper and graceful mistress of home concerns, are not a whit behind their sisters of American origin; indeed, they excel the great majority of the young ladyhood of the land. These girls are sure to be married; many of them to men of wealth and substance, and their chance for success in the social race is equal to any.

So a kind Providence has not left the American home dependent on the whims of American "young ladies." A majority of the elegant, idle, useless girls that now flutter through our fashionable drawing-rooms, will have passed away into the grave or chronic invalidism within the next twenty years. But in their place will come forth the solid brigade of graduates from their mother's kitchens, strong in body, apt in training, pouring a tide of fresh enthusiastic life into the national home.

Equally potential as a training school of American female character, is the school-room, where three hundred thousand American young women are now engaged, teaching our children. The great lack in the higher education of American young women is in the direction of social power. We are filling our country with young female learned pundits, who know literature, mathematics, sciences, all things *except to exert an influence over human beings in actual life.* The most helpless creature in American society is a "superior girl", exalted by her culture to a sense of estrangement from general society; unable to put herself in vital relations with the masses of people, or even with the ordinary varieties of character, which she meets in her own sphere of life. The young women of the South have been celebrated for a social training that goes far in mere fashionable society; but their mental and moral cultivation has been too superficial to ensure their empire over the leading circles of American affairs. The New England studious young woman has neglected social cultivation to such an extent that multitudes of admirable and aspiring maidens in that region are as essentially imprisoned by their education as if shut up in the granite walls of a convent. There never was a country where social power was so essential to every woman who desires to perform the duties of a true womanhood, as ours. All these fearful questions in church, society, the family, education, on whose wise decision our whole order of Republican affairs depends, must be discussed and solved first in the social circle, where an accomplished woman is mistress of the situation and gives the law to man.

Unfortunately, the literary and school studies of young girls are generally conducted without the stimulant that always urges on boys in similar pursuits. Place a young man and woman of equal ability in the same college and carry them through the same course of study: the boy assimilates perpetually from the necessity of his position. He is looking to a definite career, and every thing bearing on that sticks to him and finally becomes a part of his life. The girl may be held up by emulation or enthusiasm through the same course; but it will be found that, in the end, she has vitalized far less than he; and a year of average social life sweeps away the surface culture and leaves her an ordinary woman of society. It is melancholy to reflect on the absence of social power in multitudes of young women on whom money and parental zeal and the diligence of teachers have been lavished. They come out of this noble opportunity, unable to

lead their fellow beings; with no idea of responsibility to any body for any thing; ignorant of the most common duties between man and man; filled with the idea that life is a field of enjoyment; their accomplishments a part of a selfish scheme of living. If they are awakened to a temporary enthusiasm by their minister, their lover, or a good book, their gusty and capricious service is about as great an embarrassment as a help to any good cause. They are all the time living on the principle that they are the exceptions to the common, vulgar rules that dominate in ordinary society; and "piece out" their perpetual failures everywhere by a constant appeal to the gallantry, chivalry, or compassion of society. What an insecure position this is for any human being they sooner or later find out; though too often when too late to recall wasted years or garner social power.

But here, providentially, a great body of superior young women in America are placed in the most admirable training seminary for social power—*the teacher's post in the common school.* What a perfect college is this for learning the common things so essential to social influence. The homely virtues of punctuality, persistence, conformity to the imperative facts of daily life, regard for others, business accuracy, precision,—a whole swarm of essential duties in which young women in our country are so lamentably wanting,—are here ground into the teacher, day by day. She may writhe under this pitiless frame-work of iron school law, by which the free motions of her young ladyhood are cramped; but it is a discipline she can find nowhere else, and which is invaluable if rightly applied. She is placed in a position where gallantry and sentiment are in abeyance, and womanhood is the quality in demand. She is taught to respect the rights of children, families, the community in which she lives. The State; as an institution of supreme power on earth, first is revealed to her as something with which she is vitally concerned every hour of her life.

And what an education there is in the instruction and discipline of a room full of children, of various orders of mind and character, from diverse classes of society. No belle, in her first year, has such a problem in the drawing-room as hers. Instead of pleasing a transient crowd of guests, who come to be entertained for an evening, she must find her way to the souls of half a hundred restless youth; study the character and capacity of each; hold the leading strings of fifty impetuous spirits in her hands, and drive her wild team over the perilous road from

childhood to youth, with free motion to each and united action to all. The study that is done with such an end in view, supported with experimental teaching in the normal school, is often the first vital study done by the young "pupil teacher." And every day of her professional life is a new discipline into the rarest of all human power—the ability to shape the soul and mould the character into the image of wisdom, beauty, and love.

The young women, thus trained and occupied, are already a marked class in any American community. The New England school-mistress has always been, as a class, more influential than any other in New England, not only in her school-room, but during her subsequent life. Every State is now raising up a numerous body of such women, who, for a few years, will teach in its public schools, and then carry up their power so framed into family and social life. The conscientious and competent school-mistress need not give herself uneasiness about her social position. Whether she be now admitted to the leading social circles or not, if she studies faithfully in her own seminary of social power, she will graduate a woman able to take the reins of the higher social life in any community. It would surprise most people to see how large a proportion of the reliable workers in our churches and benevolent enterprises are teachers, already overworked in their own sphere. They are oftener sought in marriage than other women by superior men; and a larger proportion than of any other class are placed where they can use the power acquired in school life in the highest way.

It is well, perhaps, just now, that teaching in common schools is only the temporary occupation of superior young women. They give to the children the freshness of their youth, and receive from them in return a breadth of culture, an insight into life, and a drill in social power of incomparable value to society. Said a wise old lady to an ambitious young divine, first become a father: "Your little girl will teach you a great deal more than you can teach her." The children in the schools are now training the women who are to become the leaders in the higher walks of American society during the momentous years to come.

THE solution of all educational difficulties is to find really capable teachers. Without teachers of this character, we can hope for nothing of very great value.—DEAN STANLEY.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS—THEIR FAULTS AND REMEDIES.

No. IV.

BY Z. RICHARDS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In speaking of the reforms needed in our primary schools, we have purposely refrained from giving a detailed order of exercises or a graded course of instruction, such as would be required by the course of training we have marked out. The course of instruction and the order of exercises, which would be required, would, of course, be somewhat new, and different from any now in use; and they should be determined with much care and study, by persons of thorough training, high cultivation, and ample experience. This can be done without much difficulty as soon as the proper buildings can be secured, and the means are provided for meeting the expenses.

The chief difficulty in the way of success will probably be found in bringing the guardians of our schools and our legislators up to a full appreciation and conviction of the value and importance of such a reorganization of our schools. But the most essential requisite to success in introducing the reform we propose, will consist in properly qualified teachers. No young, inexperienced Miss from a common grammar or even high school would be equal to the demands; neither would we be sure of finding the usual graduates of our normal schools fully qualified for the work required. The teachers should be well acquainted with the branches usually taught in schools now; they should be well trained in the art and science of teaching, and should have a good knowledge of the principal branches of science, of the useful arts, of natural objects, of names, and of terms, and, specially, of the principles and art of constructing and of using our own language. In other words, they should have a good degree of familiarity with the principles and terminology of botany, mineralogy, zoölogy, anatomy and physiology, chemistry, technology, agriculture, horticulture, arts and trades, etc. We do not insist or expect that they shall be experts or thorough masters of all these subjects; but that the elementary principles at least, and the terms and language, should be so familiar as to enable them to talk intelligibly and correctly about them. We need not say that every teacher should be a proficient in the art of speaking and of teaching our own language. Without this

qualification the teacher would be like a mechanic without tools, or a physician without medicine. We would also consider it necessary that the teacher should understand the principles of music, and be able to teach them in the most approved manner.

In consequence of the lack of the proper qualifications of teachers, and of the uneconomical methods of conducting our schools, we think it can be easily shown that, even in what are sometimes called the best conducted schools, the children of the lower grades or classes, who spend most of their study hours in memorizing the contents of their arithmetics, grammars, and geographies, and of other books of dry and abstract facts, do not acquire one-fourth of the amount of useful knowledge which their young minds are capable of receiving without any detriment.

Studies or books, which require methodical and logical reflection, can not be swallowed down in allopathic doses by untaught and untrained minds. The mind must first be, to a considerable extent, matured by a course of training which is in accordance with the laws of mental growth. But no teacher is properly qualified to train young minds, who does not understand the laws of mental development, and can not adapt his instructions and efforts to the mental and physical condition of his pupils. The teacher should, therefore, be as familiar as possible with the names, characteristics, and uses of common things and natural objects, which address the senses and exercise the faculty of perception, rather than that of reflection. We may add, also, that the more familiar teachers can become with the ancient and modern languages, the better will they be qualified for this great work, provided they are otherwise qualified.

In view of the high qualifications and trained experience necessary or requisite for true success in teaching, some may exclaim, "Who is sufficient for this work"? and let us seriously ask the question, "Who *is* sufficient for these things?" It is high time that parents and all friends and patrons of schools had given this subject more serious and earnest consideration. We are all ready to decry quack doctors and pettifogging lawyers: we want trained and experienced workmen to build our houses, make our shoes and garments; but we do not hesitate to commit the spiritual and most complicated and important part of our children's being to young, inexperienced, untrained, and undevoted men and women. In many places, quackery in teaching is considered by many persons almost a qualification and a

recommendation, because it requires small salaries. When will fathers and mothers and the guardians of schools open their eyes to these glaring inconsistencies? Who wants a young and inexperienced physician to prescribe for a friend, who is afflicted with a malady which may be fatal to the body? Why, then, should we be guilty of a similar inconsistency, when we wish to *doctor* or teach the immortal mind?

It may be asked, "Where can we find the properly qualified teachers for the millions of our youth?" Thanks to the spirit of the age, there are some teachers who realize the responsibility of their position, and who have done their best to become qualified for this great work. There are two considerations which belong to the proper answer to this question. First, the necessity of providing liberally for the establishment of the most appropriate professional schools for training teachers. The State or city should be more ready and more generous in providing a sufficient number of well-equipped and well-manned training schools than they now are to provide court-houses, prisons, and asylums. The people are not true to their own interests, unless they require them, and then they should demand that every person who offers his services as a teacher, should first have the approval and recommendation of such an institution. There should be no license for quacks, pretenders, or untrained novices in this work.

The next consideration is the necessity of providing a more liberal compensation for those who are willing to fit themselves for this work. Those persons who will avail themselves of the advantages of good professional schools, and secure licenses for their profession, and who wish to make a life work of it, should receive such a remuneration for their services as will enable them to live as independently as those who enter any other profession. The pay should be such as to secure the best talent as well as the best professional training. When this is the case, the teacher's profession will be as respectable everywhere, and as much sought by the best minds, as any other profession; and those who wish to teach, will feel encouraged to prepare themselves thoroughly for the work.

We would not insinuate that none of the best minds of our country are to be found in the teachers' profession, nor should it be inferred that none of them continue in the profession. We believe that, in spite of insufficient compensation and the lack of appreciation, there are some of the finest minds and some of the

ablest men and women of the country devoting themselves to this noble work. But there are few, if any, of the professions, in which there is a necessity for better minds and better qualifications than in that of teaching. No one can teach what he does not know, nor successfully govern and control others until he has learned to govern and control himself. The teacher who has, by study and experience, fully learned the art of teaching, deserves higher compensation than the untrained and inexperienced teacher, though he may have no better knowledge of the contents of the school books.

Unfortunately, there are many persons who have taught for years without profiting much from experience. The chief end of such teachers seems to be pecuniary profit or their wages. They drag along in the old ruts, and balk terribly when asked to take a new and more desirable road. But the teacher whose eyes and ears and heart are open to the trial of new and well-approved modes of teaching and conducting schools, and who seizes upon every opportunity for personal improvement, by educational lectures, institutes, conventions, and associations, exhibits the spirit and qualifications which are worthy of praise and patronage.

But the professional and the training schools are the place for learning the principles and the practice of teaching; and these should be provided upon the most approved plan, in sufficient numbers to meet the growing demand, so that all who may desire it, may enjoy their privileges; and no one should be allowed to graduate with full honors, who can not demonstrate his ability to teach successfully.

WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS.

I am quite sure that the record of recitations of the pupils kept by the teachers of the higher grades in the District Schools and in all the grades of the Intermediate or High Schools, might be profitably dispensed with. That such a record in classes so large as ours, no difference how carefully it may be kept, represents the relative progress and standing of pupils with even a tolerable approach to correctness, is, I am convinced, both from experience and observation, a delusion. The time consumed in

calling the roll and marking the standing of the pupils at the end of each recitation, is not the only or greatest evil attending the keeping of such a roll. As the value of every answer is to be estimated in figures, the tendency of the plan is to hamper the efforts of both teacher and pupil. For fear he may not be exactly fair in his marking, the teacher hesitates to ask questions whose answers are not to be found set forth with specific precision in the text of the lesson; whilst the pupils are still more embarrassed and hesitating in their recitations, lest by the unwitting insertion or omission of a single word even they should lower the numerical value of their answers. The results of this are a greater tendency to memorize forms of expression than is profitable for mental growth, and a failure to acquire that facility in the use of language necessary to the best expression of thought.

The teacher in his daily recitation should not only use the utmost freedom in questioning his pupils, but should encourage a like freedom in answering, always insisting that their thoughts should be given in their own words. By pursuing such a course as this he will have an opportunity to follow up any line of investigation that may incidentally unfold itself during the lesson, and thus add completeness and new interest to his instruction. The truths thus incidentally arrived at impress themselves far more deeply on the minds of pupils than those conned from text books, from the fact that these truths have been discovered in part by their own efforts, and they are thus made to feel a sort of proprietary interest in them. At the same time the tendency on the part of teachers who have no fixed standard for measuring their work to talk too much, which leads to diffuseness and a lack of thoroughness in instruction, is to be resisted with a determined watchfulness. Such a standard, far more reliable than any record of recitations can possible be, is found in the written examination. By it the teacher can ascertain not only whether his pupils are merely learning their lessons from day to day, but also whether they are retaining what they learn. Such examinations to attain these objects should be as frequent as circumstances will permit; if possible once a month at least in the upper grades, and in the lower grades oftener. They should cover all the branches studied, and the class standing of the pupil should be determined by their results in connection with his deportment record, without any reference to the character of his daily recitations. I believe these examinations would prove

quite as powerful a stimulus to exertion as the marking system for lessons, whilst they would recommend themselves to pupils as being fair and strictly impartial.

As the class standing of pupils will alone be affected by these examinations, great care should be taken in preparing the questions to give them breadth and suggestiveness. If this is done, much will be accomplished in the way of lifting our instruction out of any narrow ruts into which it may have fallen. It will also be an inducement to teachers to work for results overlapping the limits of a course of study, instead of stopping short in the pursuit of truth and knowledge, however interesting and profitable it might be to continue this pursuit, when those limits are reached, on the plea that such work counts for nothing in examinations. Little narrow questions that may be answered by yes or no, or by the parrot repetition of the words of the text-book, will never measure a well-taught school. On the contrary, high percentages on such questions are perfectly consistent with stultifying and humdrum methods of instruction.

Examinations for transfer from grade to grade, since they measure the relative standing of different schools, should evidently be more rigidly confined within the exact limits of the course of study than the examinations of which I have been speaking; and yet I think no thoughtful teacher will deny that the questions for them should be so constructed as to require for their answers thought as well as memory.

I am aware that there are those who are altogether opposed to percentages as a means of classifying pupils, and they make a showing for their opposition by asserting—and very truly too—that there are many things in a good school which can not be measured by such a standard. This objection to percentages reaches back, of course, to all written examinations, the percentages being nothing more than the definite values of the answers given. The opponents of percentages, if they have any standard for the promotion and classification of pupils in their scheme for conducting a graded school, must make the teacher's estimate of the value of the daily recitations that standard. Now I venture to assert most confidently, that a proper and uniform classification of pupils in a great system of graded schools on a basis so uncertain as this would be in one teacher, and whose uncertainty will be increased a thousand fold when it becomes the varying judgments of five hundred teachers, is utterly impossible; and that the board of education that should make such an attempt

would find its system of schools, in a brief period, falling into utter chaos.

It may be said that good teaching does not show its best fruits immediately—and there is some truth in the assertion—but when a teacher has had his pupils under his care but for a single year, it would be preposterous to assume that the school authorities should wait until those pupils have grown up and passed out into the world of active life, before attempting to ascertain anything of the character and value of the one year's work. For this one year's work the teacher is responsible, and can justly be held responsible for no more. When pupils have come to him upon a certain and fixed standard of literary qualifications, and his field of labor for the year has a well defined boundary, he has no right to complain if the results of his labor fall below those of other teachers in the same grade, provided the standard applied is fair and uniform. Such a standard, as I have already said, I believe the written examination to be. Not a perfect standard certainly, but the nearest approach to one. It does not measure the differences of home influences and opportunities; nor does it exactly measure the moral standing of a school—though a school with a very low standing in intellectual attainments and a high standing in morals has not come under my observation. Within the legitimate sphere of its operations, the written examination, if honestly conducted, determines in the most impartial manner all it professes to determine,—neither the health nor the caprice of the teacher having the least effect upon its results. The written examination has this other important advantage, it not only enables the teacher to ascertain definitely and relatively what his pupils are doing, but by it the pupils are enabled also to determine for themselves from time to time, with the utmost exactness, where they are standing—a knowledge they can not gain by any other means.

My experience on boards of examiners has convinced me that many students pass through their whole scholastic course totally in the dark as to the character of their attainments,—self-deceived partly, and partly unintentionally deceived by their instructors, into the belief that they were on the high road to superior scholarship. The touchstone of a written examination opens their eyes at once, but often, unfortunately, too late. Such a lack of self-knowledge could never exist for any length of time were students in colleges, as well as in lower schools, thoroughly

tested at every step of their educational career by the honest, truth-telling written examination.

While, then, entirely convinced of the necessity of written examinations in a system of graded schools, and of percentages as the means of expressing their results, I can not speak in too strong terms of condemnation of that teaching that sees nothing beyond; that fears to turn aside the least way, however inviting the prospect, from the treadmill round which is believed, from tradition and experience, to be most effective in grinding out high figures. Such mechanical work does not deserve the name of teaching, and no true teacher will ever suffer himself to be cribbed within such narrow bounds. It can not be too deeply impressed upon teachers that percentages are but a means of measuring work, not an end to be worked for.—*Supt.* JOHN HANCOCK *in Annual Report.*

JUSTICE.

BY MARY C. YOUNG, BALTIMORE, MD.

"One man may steal a horse, where another may not look over a gate." So runs the old proverb, generally quoted as an illustration of the injustice which prevails in the world. I may be supposed to state a paradox, when I declare my conviction that this old "saw" embodies, on the contrary, a high principle of *justice;* and I think that a little serious consideration will prove such to be the fact.

The old Greeks were practically wiser than we in this, as in many other instances, that they did not tie a fillet over the eyes of their goddess of Justice that she might not use them even in the light. They gave her the eyes of the owl to see through the darkness. We place the balance in the hand of our blind goddess, but how can she discriminate between the "pound of feathers" and the "pound of lead", between the rough ingot and the priceless work of the goldsmith? To speak plainly, it is a great mistake to imagine that justice can be done by *treating all persons alike;* and in no work is this mistake more fatal (or more generally prevalent) than in that of the teacher.

Let us take a very common case as an illustration. Out of a class of ten children, four fail at recitation to know or to under-

stand their lesson. Of these four, one is a slow, but diligent scholar, who has missed the teacher's explanation, and whose memory never retains what his understanding has not fairly grasped. Another is the very reverse, a quick, bright, superficial boy, who mistakes *apprehension* for *comprehension*, and who, therefore, breaks down just where he fancied himself sure of success. A third is one of those hopeless cases who come to school "because they *have to*" (I quote the very expression used by a young lady to myself), to whom all books alike are written in cipher, and who, to the end of their lives, will never see any reason why two and two should not make *five* just as well as *four*. The fourth is a simple case of pure idleness,—"I don't know and I don't care." Shall these four children meet with the same treatment? If they do, is not justice blind?

I shall be met here, I am aware, by the objection, "We know and feel these inequalities, but we must give marks *by rule;* if a teacher's private judgment were to decide on individual merits, he or she would be open to the charge of favoritism." Now I am persuaded that this objection is practically unfounded, and that pupils judge each other pretty much as the teacher judges them. But suppose that, as regards *marks*, an iron rule is necessary, surely there is room for distinctions even then. A word of sympathy to No. 1, of warning to No. 2, and of reproof to No. 4, will often prevent the recurrence of failure, and a little extra time and attention given to slow pupils, *avowedly on that ground*, will never be grudged by those of superior ability.

I could give instances from my own experience, but I think every teacher's observation will supply cases, where allowance made for a peculiar trait of character has been indorsed by a whole class, and where the want of such allowance has been blamed, even by those who were the gainers. Rather let me point out that this is the principle of justice laid down in that book which we all profess to make our guide. I will not refer to the numerous precepts scattered throughout the whole Bible, nor to the parable of the talents, which will, of course, occur to every mind, but to that of the laborers in the vineyard, where the objection is stated in as strong terms as any modern skeptic could state it: "These last have wrought but one hour, and thou hast made them equal unto us, who have borne the burden and heat of the day!" We all know the answer: "Friend, I do *thee* no wrong; didst thou not agree with me for a penny? Take that thine is, and go thy way; *I will give unto this last even as*

unto thee." Is this a mere assertion of irresponsible power? Nay, surely! "Shall not the Judge of all the earth do RIGHT?" "These last" had not the same chance as the others: they had stood "idle in the market place", not from choice, but "because no man had hired them." When hired, they had done their best (though it might not be the best); therefore, the Master gave them full pay,—and who shall dare impugn His justice! Let us, each in our own small sphere, "Go, and do likewise."

State Normal School.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

The interest which these institutions for the education of children awaken, is shown by their growth; and we think we shall merit the gratitude of many readers, if we report the development of the kindergarten on American soil. In so doing we, unfortunately, must first admit the disheartening fact, that Germans show very little interest in the fostering of a kind of culture which, at home, even if after a hard contest, has opened such a promising field, and has already accomplished so much good. Many consider the kindergartens mere play schools, not educational institutions; and it is believed that every mother, even without instruction, is the best teacher for her children. Others who admit the efficiency of the kindergartens as genuine places of instruction, consider it not advisable to send children to them, lest mental activity may be excited too early,—prejudices with which these institutions at first had also to contend in Germany, but which, thanks to the perseverance of worthy teachers, have long since been vanquished. While this appears, * * * it is a doubly pleasing fact that people in Anglo-American circles interest themselves the more willingly in the kindergarten, and already consider the question of introducing it into the public schools as soon as they have trained the necessary number of kindergarten teachers. Besides, we shall find the preference of the American for the German school intelligible when we consider how much his comprehension of life corresponds with the tendency of the above-mentioned institutions. Indeed, it can not be doubted that children, by means of various activities, of their little labors in doing and making, and thus in

the practical exercises of men, should, from their earliest childhood in fact, be led on, developed, and preserved from the destructive instincts which rise so early. But this is precisely what the American wishes; theory disgusts him; he sees his life work in practical activity, and, therefore, desires that the growing race be already educated by play, not merely in reasoning and knowing, but also in acting and doing.

If the kindergarten is once admitted into the American school system, and if Germans know how to harmonize their science of teaching, in which the theoretic element of culture still preponderates too much, with the circumstances of the country in which they live, a reform of the whole nature of education, after the German model, will be introduced. This would accomplish the transformation and improvement, which are sought by renowned teachers in Germany, and which, particularly in our practical time, enter into the life of the individual and of the community.

The literature of the kindergarten is quite extended, and America even is represented in it by valuable contributions. We here refer especially to the "Kindergarten Guide", by Mrs. Horace Mann and Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody; and the "Paradise of Childhood", by E. Wiebe, a pupil of Froebel. A new book, "The Kindergarten: A Manual for the Introduction of Froebel's System of Primary Education into Public Schools, and for the use of Mothers and Private Teachers", by Adolf Douai, is just published by E. Steiger.

We close our communication, which we can not extend into a description of the kindergarten, with an interesting extract concerning the associated public kindergarten in Hamburg, by Theodore Hoffman, which we take from the last *Jahresbericht*:

"Twenty years", says the writer, "have flown since the first public kindergarten was opened in Hamburg and in Northern Germany. The first ten years were for them a time of contest with prejudice and ignorace. Perseverance in their management and the indeed slow but uninterrupted enlightenment as to their nature and value, have gained the victory over their opponents. The second ten years have seen the kindergarten arise everywhere, and it is not possible to satisfy the demand for really well-trained kindergarten teachers.

"With the growing interest of the public, and just after the teachers in Hamburg were won, a serious disturbance of their quiet continuance in their former number menaced our public

kindergarten. The statistics of the Hamburg schools reported, even a year ago, more than twenty private kindergartens, to which others have since been added. These private kindergarten are partially connected with the schools, and train their primary classes. Desirable as it is, that the kindergarten be brought into an organic union with the school, yet it now appears that there are no longer as many children sent to the public kindergarten, as are necessary to their progress, to the founding of new institutions, or even to their continuance in the considerable number to which they have now attained. In order to keep our public kindergarten in the number they have now reached, it is only necessary to represent Froebel's ideas worthily, and to assure the young girls, who wish to become teachers, a sufficient amount of culture. If a young lady will satisfy the demands that are made of a kindergarten teacher, there is presupposed an earnest and continuous endeavor. The tender and susceptible mind of the child, just by reason of its nature, demands the most considerate management. Indeed, it has long been acknowledged that there is no age in which a greater influence can be exerted than in this. The recognition of the truth of this assertion has called the kindergarten into life, and will finally remove the long-sustained error, that every mother, as such, even without particular thought or instruction, is the best teacher of her children; or, that every young girl who chooses the calling of a teacher, in order to support herself, may follow this calling without especial training, with the expectation of good results.

"We notice this remark particularly, in order to justify the care which we use in our training school for kindergarten teachers. This institution sent out last year twenty-four young girls who had attended it with great zeal and earnestness for a whole year, and with the best results. Instruction was divided into—1st. The education of the teachers with especial reference to Froebel's idea; 2d. The plays and occupations of Froebel's primary kindergarten; 3d. The German language; 4th. Singing; 5th. Reckoning; 6th. Natural history; 7th. Drawing and form teaching; and 8th. Gymnastics. The teachers are required to attend regularly, in the morning, one of the kindergartens, in order to improve practically. In this institution a farther course of training is furnished, which all ladies who are located as teachers or assistants, are pledged to complete.

"Madam Froebel, the widow of the great reformer, distin-

guishes herself especially in the schools of Hamburg, by her quiet and sensible management."—*From the Literarischer Monatsbericht, translated by Miss* SUE A. LONGWELL, *Westboro, Mass.*

JOTTINGS.

BY W. D. HENKLE, SALEM, OHIO.

44. *Rare.* Many persons have wondered why beef not well done is called *rare.* C. A. Bristed says, "One of the first expressions that would probably strike an inexperienced Londoner, on his arrival in the United States, is *rare*, for *underdone*, meat." The word has no connection with *rare*, from the Latin *rarus*, which came into the English language through the French *rare.* This fact was not recognized by John Ash, LL.D, as may be seen from the following quotation from the second volume of his Dictionary, London, 1775:

"RARE (*adj. from the Lat. rarus*) Scarce, uncommon; excellent, incomparable; thinly scattered, thin, subtle; raw, not fully dressed.—*Dryden.*"

The reference to Dryden is no doubt intended for both the meanings *uncommon, excellent, or incomparable*, and *raw*, for he uses the word *rare* in line 160, of "The Flower and the Leaf", Globe Edition, p. 585, in the sense of incomparable, and in his translation of "Baucis and Philemon", Ovid, book viii, he has—

> "Then curds and cream, the flower of country fare,
> And new laid eggs, which Baucis' busy care
> Turn'd by a gentle fire, and roasted *rare.*"

Bailey in his Dictionary, 17th edition, 1759, has—

"RARE [*Rarus*, L.] that happens but seldom, uncommon, excellent, singular, scarce, hard to be got.—*F.*

"RARE [*Physical Sense*] thin, rawish."

Johnson in his Quarto Dictionary, Sec. Vol., 8th edition, 1799, gives as the fifth meaning of *rare*,—

"5. Raw; not fully subdued by the fire. This is often pronounced *rear.*"

This meaning he expressly excepts from the word as derived from "*rarus*, Latin; *rare*, French"; but he ventures to give no etymology of *rare* when it means *raw.*

Richardson makes the same mistake that Ash made, in not re-

cognizing that *rare* from *rarus* and *rare, raw*, are two different words.

"*Rear* (corruptly pronounced *rare*), early, soon. Meat under roasted, boiled, or broiled, is said to be rear or rare, from being taken too soon off the fire. See Raid and Rathe. Kent."—*Grose's Provincial Glossary*, 1811.

Halliwell in his Dictionary of Archaic and Provincial Words, vol. 2, p. 671, gives under the second meaning of *rear*,—

"(2) Underdone; nearly raw. *North.* 'Reere as an egge is, *mol.*' *Palsgrave.*

"If a man sicke of the bloody-flixe drinke thereof in a *reere* egge two scruples for three dais together fasting, it will procure him remedy. *Topsell's Beasts*, 1607, p. 275."

Under *rare* he has—

"(3) Underdone; raw. *Var. dial.*
"(4) Early. *Devon.*"

The following quotation from Bosworth's Anglo-Saxon and English Dictionary, p. 145, shows clearly the etymology of *rare, raw:*

"Hrére *Rear, raw.*"

This etymology is adopted by Webster, Worcester, and Latham.

45. *Rusty.* It is probably supposed by most persons that are familiar with the phrase, "rusty bacon", that bacon is called *rusty* when it has a rusty appearance. The following quotation from Grose's Provincial Glossary suggests a doubt as to whether *rusty* in the phrase just given is not a different word from *rusty* in the phrase "rusty iron":

"*Reesty*, rancid. N. [Northern] Vulgarly pronounced in the South rusty, as rusty bacon."

The word *reasty* is used by Skelton,—

"And then came haltyng Jone,
And brought a gambone
Of bakon that was reasty."

Worcester thinks *reasty* a corruption of *rusty*. Barnes in his Tiw, or English Roots and Stems, p. 190, defines "RUSTY, REASTY, e. [Eastern], RAISTY, REERED, n., (of bacon), decomposed or rust-hued." His definition of "Rust" is "decomposition, or ruddy."

Notwithstanding these statements, there is a probability that *rusty*, meaning rancid, is a corruption of *reasty*, and not that *reasty* is a corruption of *rusty*.

46. *Handsome.* Lexicographers have failed to show any clear connection between *handsome* and *hand.* Is the mystery solved by Barnes in his "Tiw", in which *hand* is defined, "what takes in", and *handsome*, "taking, or captivating"? This is consistent with the following from Grose's Glossary, "*Hand*, hold, stay; hand your hand. N."

THE BEST LAWS.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

Solon, when asked if he had given the Athenians the BEST LAWS, replied, "*Yes, the best the Athenians could have received.*" The best regulations for one school may be the worst for another. The gentle modes by which Miss Mild controls her thirty docile boys and girls, culled from the sweetest homes of an Ohio village, are not effective when applied to a mission school of young Indians in the shadow of the Rocky Mountains. Rules, incentives, restraints, rewards, punishments, are to be selected or invented, like a mechanic's tools, with reference to the particular use to be made of them. The carpenter employs an ax and cross-cut saw on the rough log; a smoothing-plane and fine chisel on the shapen board; and finer instruments still as his work approaches completion. Each kind of material is wrought by a suitable instrument. A pine stick yields to the edge of a pen-knife; but a bar of iron must be heated and hammered into shape. Neither knife, fire, nor hammer meets the sculptor's need.

The teacher must adapt his methods to existing conditions, remembering always that conditions are subject to perpetual change. In no work is there greater variety of processes than in teaching, and no work calls for more ingenuity and versatility. The arts of government and discipline are exceedingly dependent upon circumstances. It is neither quickness nor slowness of action on the teacher's part; neither severity nor leniency; love nor anger; physical power, nor spiritual, that in itself secures success, but any or all of these according to the necessity of the case.

April 6, 1872.

Editorial Department.

——We need not call attention to Dr. Mayo's fresh and thoughtful contribution which opens this number. Its views, so happily and forcibly expressed, will be new to most of our readers, and all, we think, will concede their truth and importance. Our lady readers, who are now in the "training seminary for social power", will bless the writer and take courage. We hope, speaking in the interests of the schools, that they will not be in too much haste to "carry up their power so framed into family and social life"!——Mr. Richards concludes this month his series of suggestive articles on primary schools. The reforms, which he so earnestly advocates, are probably too radical for the present century, but we thank him none the less for a conception of a primary school, which so puts to shame all our ideals. Our lack of faith in its present practicability may be due to an over estimate of the conservatism of the people. It seems about time that intelligent communities were educated up to an appreciation of the fact, that little children need trained and skillful teachers. The advocates of school reform must learn "to labor and *to wait*."——We hope that all inexperienced teachers will carefully re-read Mr. Newell's admirable papers in our March and April issues. His suggestions will be found both practical and helpful.

——It will be seen by reference to the article on "Written Examinations' in this number, that Supt. Hancock, of Cincinnati, advocates the disuse of the marking of recitations in the higher grades of public schools, and the substitution of frequent written examinations to test the progress and attainments of the pupils. His objections to the marking system in graded schools with large classes and brief recitations, are well taken, though they may not be decisive. It certainly curtails the freedom of both teacher and pupil, hindering a free play of thought and inquiry, and making the recitations text-bookish and narrow, and it consumes too much time. The practical force of these and other objections to the system has induced a considerable and increasing number of teachers to abandon it, and generally with favorable results. The disuse of the system has also been considered by the faculties of several colleges, including Harvard, where the "reform" has been put to the test of actual trial. Of this experiment a Cambridge correspondent of the *Independent* says:

"The movement has not been successful, and does not seem likely to be at present; for the great convenience of the system of marks still outweighs all arguments against it. An important change, however, has been made. Formerly all offenses against good order were punished primarily by deductions from the aggregate of marks which determined the student's standing in his class. Now scholarship and discipline are separated altogether, and it is no longer possible for the first scholar of a class to lose his rank by the injudicious explosion of a fire cracker, by throwing a snow-ball, or wearing on Sunday a coat whose absolute blackness is contestible. Offenses are still punished with the proper penalty, but not by deductions. * * * The marking system remains—reformed but still essentially the same."

The experience of Harvard will doubtless cause other colleges to look to a ›rrection of the abuses of the marking system rather than to its abolition. 'e believe that the system may be used in our higher institutions with advan- ge. The professors have sufficient time to test critically the students' knowl- lge of the lesson without sacrificing the other important ends of the recita- ›n, and, certainly, no college professor needs so to yield to the demands of his citation record as to become a mere testing and recording machine, instead ' a live and true teacher. But the marking of recitations is at least of ıestionable value in large public schools, and especially is this true when the citation marks are averaged to determine the relative standing of the pupils.

—— MR. HANCOCK'S argument in favor of written examinations is commend- ›ly strong. The subjecting of classes to frequent searching examinations is, all experience proves, a most efficient means of promoting diligence in ıdy and thoroughness in teaching, and, whether a daily record of recitations : kept or not, such examinations, occurring, as we prefer, at the close of each ' the several main topics or sections of the different branches, are very im- ›rtant and valuable. They afford the pupil a tangible standard with which to easure his success, and its application is sufficiently frequent to prevent self- :eption and promote steady, persistent effort. We are aware that there are achers who decry not only the marking of recitations, but all examinations -who object to any system of testing or recording the pupil's progress. We ıve yet to see a thorough school which is thus conducted. The absence of l tests of scholarship not only results in superficial work, but it covers it up, ıd thus permits both teachers and pupils to be deceived—a point well made ; Mr. Hancock. It is not difficult for the most superficial institution to send ıt its students puffed up with the idea that they are superior scholars. This easily accomplished by making instruction, not testing, the chief object of very recitation, the teachers talking and explaining much and the pupils re- ting but little; and then dispensing with all test examinations. The process ' deception will be complete if the pupils are praised much and the institution vigorously puffed. In this way pupils may skim over a prodigious course of ıdy in a few terms, dealing with but little more than synopses of the several ranches and actually mastering nothing, and then graduate profoundly igno- ınt of their lack of true scholarship. We hold that the leading object of ıe recitation in higher grades of schools should be *to test the pupils' knowl- lge*, and that their attainments should be further tested by searching exami- ations. If a pupil has any definite knowledge of a subject, the fact will be :vealed by an examination of the right character, and, if he has no such nowledge, he certainly ought to know it. We can not now refer to the man- er in which the results of examinations should be used. They are too often ıisused.

—— A CORRESPONDENT of the *New York Times* advocates, in an able arti- le, the duty of the State to establish and cause to be enforced a system of :ompulsory attendance upon the public schools in the City of New York and

afterward in the State at large,—a system which, while doing no violence to religious scruples, shall secure "the largest practical amount of moral and religious teaching." He urges that this system should include two kinds of influence—"kindly persuasion and pecuniary aid to well meaning but very poor parents, and that of coercion, in various ways, with those who are vicious, callous, and malicious." He proposes the appointment of a Commission by the General Assembly to inquire into the most efficient means of attaining these ends. He suggests that this inquiry should extend to (1) the providing of homes for the more destitute, neglected, and abused children; (2) the furnishing of clothing for the children of poor parents, remaining at their own homes while they attend school; (3) the payment by the public of a portion of the rents of the worthy poor whose children remain at home while attending school; (4) measures of compulsion against vicious, non attending children and their neglectful parents and guardians, (5) penal provisions against the employers and parents of young children who are illegally kept from school; and to several other particulars specified, including the erection of suitable buildings for instruction in useful employments and the practice of juvenile industry. It will be noticed that this scheme recognizes the fact that something more than compulsion is needed to rescue children from a condition of ignorance and degradation imposed by poverty and parental neglect.

—— It is evident that the value and importance of normal training have not yet received universal recognition. There lie before us three articles, written by different persons and published in different sections of the country. The first denies the value of normal instruction. It claims that men are "fitted by nature to teach", that "the power to impart knowledge and the power to govern others are natural gifts" which can not be improved or increased by special training; that the only qualification for teaching which can be acquired is "knowledge"—a knowledge of the subjects taught. The second writer declares that there are no principles in teaching, which can be either taught or acquired; that every child must be taught as an individual, since no two children are alike. The third writer maintains that "the art of teaching is learned from example", and hence that every good school furnishes efficient normal training. It will be noticed that while these three writers agree in denying the value of normal instruction, they contravene each other's positions. If the art of teaching comes "by nature", it is not learned from example, and, if there are no principles in teaching, it is difficult to determine what is a good example. The first article curiously closes with a criticism of certain methods of teaching, which the writer calls "normal", and other methods and principles are commended. If these methods and principles are correct, would not a knowledge of them help a young teacher even though "fitted by nature"? It is true that natural aptitude is essential to the highest success in teaching and it is also true that example is an important means of learning the art, but neither nor both of these facts disprove the efficiency of direct normal instruction and training.

ILLITERACY IN THE UNITED STATES.

The very important report of the United States Commissioner of Education to the Secretary of the Interior for the year 1871, fully justifies the establishment by Congress of such an office. The report covers a wide range of topics, all pertinent to the great subject of education. One of the most interesting topics, and one which has first arrested our attention, is that of illiteracy, or the amount and distribution of ignorance in the United States. Inability to read is made the measure and proof of illiteracy. Tables of statistics, prepared from the census returns for 1870, are given. In these tables the country is separated into three divisions, the Northern, Pacific, and Southern. The Northern division includes Nebraska and Kansas on the west, and the Pacific includes all the far-western States and Territories. The Southern division has for its northern boundary the old Mason & Dixon's line, *i. e.*, the old border line between the Slave and Free States.

The first table of statistics classifies the general illiteracy of all persons ten years old and upward into native and foreign. By native is understood American born, and not necessarily nativity in the State where enrolled. The figures are as follows:

	Native.	*Foreign.*	*Total.*
Northern division, aggregate	690,117	665,985	1,356,102
In this division, Massachusetts has	7,912	89,830	97,742
" " New York has	72,583	168,569	241,152
" " Ohio has	134,102	39,070	173,172
" " Illinois has	90,605	42,979	133,584
Pacific division, aggregate	74,504	39,496	114,000
In this division, California has	9,520	22,196	31,716
" " Nevada has	98	774	872
" " New Mexico has	49,311	2,909	52,220
Southern division, aggregate	4,117,589	72,383	4,189,972
In this division, Virginia has	444,623	1,270	445,893
" " South Carolina has	289,726	653	290,379

The above statistics are very significant. In the Northern division nearly half of the whole illiteracy belongs to the foreign element; in the Pacific division the native ignorance is nearly twice as great as that of the foreign; while in the Southern division there is comparatively little foreign illiteracy.

In Massachusetts nearly all the ignorance belongs to the population of foreign birth; but in Ohio there are 134,102 illiterates who are not foreigners. This number, disgracefully large, considering the facilities for education in the State, is not in the strict sense native, but is made up largely of persons and the children of persons who came into the State from latitudes south of Mason & Dixon's line, and represent the southern people. In other words, we have in Ohio the extreme northern edge of that cloud of southern ignorance, which so long brooded over the ancient domain of slavery. The same cloud overshadows Indiana, where the illiterates, not foreign, are 113,185. The poorer classes of whites, which have immigrated into Ohio and Indiana from the South, are almost necessarily ignorant, for in the South they had no opportunities of education, and it will be some time before they can be made to prize and improve their educational privileges. It must be remembered that in Ohio there are 20,776 illiterate colored people, or nearly one-fifth of the whole num-

ber of illiterates. Many of these came here during and after the war. The colored population of Ohio before the war, possessed a very commendable degree of intelligence, notwithstanding the laws relating to the education of colored youth in this State were oppressive and infamous, and they are neither just nor fair yet. In Indiana there are 8,254 colored illiterates.

The tables show that "there are in this country about 1,585,000 illiterate male adults, of whom about 743,000 are whites; that in the Northern division there are about 395,000 white and 34,000 colored, and in the Pacific division about 35,000 white and 750 colored, and in the Southern division about 313,000 white and 807,000 colored males who can not write, and yet who are or may become voters. There are of white female adults (21 years old and over) unable to write, about 610,000 in the Northern division, about 34,000 in the Pacific division, and about 484,000 in the Southern division. The colored female adult illiterates number about 38,000 in the Northern division, 500 in the Pacific, and 885,000 in the Southern. There are, therefore, in the whole country 2,052,000 ignorant women. * * * While every preceding census has shown, and the forthcoming one will probably also show, that the males preponderate, there are actually nearly 467,000 more ignorant women than ignorant men in the United States; of this majority 219,000 are in the Northern division, and of these about 215,000 are white women."

The report also gives some very interesting ratios of illiteracy. "It will be seen", says the Commissioner, "that in proportion to the total population of the respective divisions, the total illiteracy of the Northern is about one-half that of the Pacific and less than one-fifth of the Southern; that the native illiteracy of the Northern division is less than one-tenth of that of the Southern; that the colored illiteracy of the Northern is about one forty-eighth part of that of the Southern; and that in the Southern division the adult male illiteracy is nearly four and one-half times and the total minor illiteracy more than ten times as great as that in the Northern division."

Commissioner Eaton, after showing the extent and distribution of illiteracy in the country, gives the following curious statistics: "Of the 2,047 homicides (reported for 1869-70) 417 were in the Northern division, 269 in the Pacific, and 1,361 in the Southern. The Indians perpetrated 11 of those in the first division and 74 of those in the second. Even if it be merely a coincidence that ignorance and homicides go hand in hand, it is a curious one." We should be inclined to attribute the greater number of Southern homicides largely to that spirit, long prevalent in the South, which makes men quick to take affront and quick to resent it, and which causes the people to carry deadly weapons. This spirit came in with the English Cavalier, and has been intensified by long years of slavery, which rendered the higher classes more haughty and unbrooking of opposition, and through them affected the whole mass. In this way human life became less sacred, and might be taken whenever this was the alternative to bearing insult. There is sometimes a disregard of the freed negro from mere prejudice of race, and the poor colored man is destroyed. This kind of inhuman malignity is, however, more than matched by the treatment of the Indians by the border ruffians in our Western territories.

There are in the report some statistics showing the connection between igno-

rance and crime. The conclusions reached are that "at least eighty per cent. of the crime of New England is committed by those who have no education or none sufficient to serve them a valuable purpose in life. In 1868, twenty-eight per cent. of the prisoners in the country were unable to read or write. From three to seven per cent. of the population of the United States commit thirty per cent. of all our crime, and less than one-fifth of one per cent. is committed by those who are educated." We seriously doubt this last statement. The crime of murder, whether directly perpetrated or indirectly by poison or hired assassination, is not always committed by ignorant men who can not read or write. Very far from it. So far as our recollection of cases of convicted murderers goes, very few, if any, have been illiterate in the above sense. Besides the convicted cases, there have been large numbers of equally guilty who have escaped punishment by means of their very intelligence. The larger criminals who defraud banks and railroad corporations, steal Indian reservations, become defaulters to governments, national and State, etc., are not illiterate. Neither are our forgers and wholesale robbers illiterate men. While intelligence with honesty is a power for good, intelligence without moral support is a power for evil. That the education furnished by American schools is a great moral influence we fully believe, but we doubt that the Commissioner is within the limits of ascertained facts, when he says that "less than one-fifth of one per cent. of all our crime is committed by the educated."

The statistics of illiteracy in Europe are very meagre, not only in this report, but in all the foreign authorities. There appears to be no direct method of obtaining the facts. In some cases, the intelligence of army recruits affords the only means of determining it for the whole body of the people. In France, in addition, the ability or want of ability to sign the name, on the part of those who apply for marriage license, is taken as a test of the general intelligence. So far as we know, there are no direct returns of the number who can not read and write. Every thing is inferential. But although in the United States census there is apparently a direct investigation of this matter, yet there is wide room for errors in the returns. Large numbers will not admit their illiteracy, feeling that the confession, in this country, involves a measure of humiliation. Foreigners, for example the Germans, may often misapprehend the matter, and confess to an inability to read or write in English, while, at the same time, they may read and write their native tongue readily. Hence the American statistics on this subject are so liable to have an element of inaccuracy in them, that they must be used with caution and with a pretty liberal margin for possible errors.

THE SCHOOL RECORD OF OHIO FOR 1871.

The eighteenth annual report of the State Commissioner of Common Schools contains a very full and satisfactory exhibit of the condition and progress of public education in Ohio for the last school year. The thirty-one carefully compiled tables present detailed statistics of the public schools in the several

counties, including the returns of county examiners and teachers' institutes, with separate tables for the graded-school districts, and for colleges, academies, and other higher private schools. From the summaries of these tables we select the following important items:

	1870.	1871.
Whole number of school houses in the State	11,547	11,571
Number of school houses erected during the year	645	578
Cost of school houses erected and grounds	$1,391,597	$1,025,077
Total value of school houses and grounds	$13,818,554	$14,988.612
Whole number of school rooms	13,951	14,186
Number of youth between the ages of five and twenty-one years, enumerated	1,041,680	1,058,048
Increase for the year	12,803	16,368
Number of pupils enrolled in the public schools	724,896	732,122
Average number of pupils in daily attendance	413,893	432,452
Per centum of enumerated youth enrolled	75	69
Per centum of pupils enrolled in daily attendance	61.5	60 54
Per centum of enumerated youth in daily attendance	43	40.87
Whole number of different male teachers employed	9,402	9,563
Whole number of different female teachers employed	12.436	12,544
Number of teachers necessary to supply the schools	14,375	14,747
Number of teachers employed the entire school session	7,171	7,580
Number of local superintendents employed	.....	130
Average number of weeks sub-district schools were in session	.....	25.60
Average number of weeks graded schools were in session	.....	36.84
Number of different applicants for county certificates	20,827	22,561
Number of applicants for certificates rejected	3,282	3,740
Average monthly wages of male teachers in townships	$38 00	$37 00
Average monthly wages of female teachers in townships	$24.00	$21.00
Average monthly wages of male teachers in separate districts, not including high schools	$74.00	$72.00
Average monthly wages of female teachers in separate districts, not including high schools	$42.00	$41.00
Total amount paid teachers	$3,907,267	$4,107,795
Amount paid for managing and superintending (local)	$98,533	$102,980
Expenditures for sites, building, and repairs	$1,979,578	$1,517,021
For fuel and other contingent expenses	$1,165,188	$1,103,238
Grand total of expenditures	$7,150,566	$6,831,035
Receipts from interest on school funds	$234,750	$241,402
Receipts from State tax (1.3 mills)	$1,452,446	$1,514,060
Receipts from local tax	$4,889,880	$4,947,800
Receipts from fines, licenses, sales of bonds, etc	$849,958	$662,730
Grand total of receipts	$7,427,034	$7,365,992
Average rate of local school tax in townships (mills)	3.63	3.02
Average rate of local school tax in separate districts	7.57	6.19
Number of county teachers' institutes held	70	68
Number of sub-districts in townships in which schools were taught less than 24 weeks	642	874

A comparison of these two columns shows an unexpected decrease in several financial items. The falling off in the amount paid for sites and buildings and contingent expenses is only $110,813, but there is a marked reduction in the wages of teachers in the townships and in the lower schools in the cities and villages. We think that this decrease is due to the political agitation of the policy of loc retrenchment, which has raged in Ohio for two or three years past. Of course the ill paid teachers and the schools must be the first to feel the effects of such an agitation. The fact of a considerable reduction in local levies indicates a further decrease in school expenses in 1872.

We are pleased to notice that the statistics show a continued increase in school attendance. The total number of pupils enrolled was 732,122, including

2,750 re enrollments, and of this number 86,020 pupils were over 15 years f age. The number of youth in the State between 5 and 16 years of age, as stimated by returns from forty counties, was 842,524, of whom 633,352, or ver 77 per cent., were enrolled in the public schools. In most of the cities nd towns of the State, children are not admitted to the public schools before ney are 6 years of age. Making due allowance for this fact, it is seen that a ery large per cent. of the youth of the State under 16 years of age, were enolled in the schools.

We have already published that portion of Commissioner Harvey's report hich relates to school legislation, and it is hoped that his earnest words will et bear fruit. "The State", as he well says, "must do something more than uy school-house sites, erect school houses, and employ teachers. Our school ystem must be vitalized and made efficient by the employment of agencies hich will furnish us competent teachers, and insure a faithful performance of he minutest details of school work."

The report closes with fifty-four pages of brief statements of county auditors and school examiners, respecting the condition of schools and school houses, and some fifty pages of questions used in the examination of teachers by thirty-one county boards of examiners. An investigation of the contents of these interesting pages would yield rich returns, and we regret that we can not enter upon it. We commend the "specimen questions" to the study of examiners and teachers.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—THE *New York School Journal* has copied several articles from this journal without due credit.

—THE corner-stone of the new building for the Normal College of New York City, was laid on the 19th of March. The building will occupy an entire block, and an appropriation of $300,000 has been made for its erection.

—SAMUEL F. B. MORSE, LL.D., the inventor of the electro-telegraph, died in New York City on the 2d of April, at the age of 81. He was the son of Dr. Morse, "the father of American geography."——Salem Towne, author of a series of readers and spellers, died recently in Charlton, Mass., at the age of 92. In 1845, Mr. Towne assisted in conducting the first teachers' institute held in Ohio.——Reuben McMillan has been appointed superintendent of the public schools of Youngstown, O., at a salary of $2,500. He formerly held this position, and we welcome him back to the profession.——J. K. Pickett, formerly superintendent of the schools of Alliance, O., is teaching in the public schools of Warren, Pa.

—HON. SAMUEL GALLOWAY, of this city, died of consumption on the 5th of April, aged 61 years. Mr. Galloway graduated at Miami University in

1833. He taught a classical school in Hamilton one year, and then succeeded Dr. Wm. H. McGuffey as professor of Latin and Greek in Miami University, but ill health obliged him to resign. In 1839 he accepted the chair of Ancient Languages in Hanover College, but soon retired in feeble health. He then studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1842. In 1844 he was elected Secretary of State, and became *ex officio* State Superintendent of Schools. He labored zealously and effectively for the improvement of common schools, and the great educational revival, which began in 1845 and resulted in the liberal school legislation of 1848–9, was largely due to his stirring reports and efforts. He prepared six annual reports, ably discussing the importance of universal education, and advocating teachers' institutes, normal schools, supervision, and other measures of school improvement. He retired from the office of Secretary of State at the close of 1849, having rendered the cause of education a very valuable service. Mr. Galloway presided at the first meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association, held at Akron in 1847, and he was reëlected president in 1848, and again in 1849. His interest in the Association and in the progress of education continued through life. At the time of his death, he was a trustee of the Miami University and also of the Ohio Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.

OHIO.—The House has passed the school bill, after divesting it of several of its few progressive provisions by unwise amendments, and the measure will doubtless pass the Senate. We were surprised that so intelligent a representative as Mr. Little, of Greene, should move to amend the bill by restoring the present complicated, mongrel, and inefficient township organization, but we were more surprised that the school committee, having spent weeks in maturing the bill, permitted the amendment to pass *without a word of objection*. It is evident that better leadership than this is necessary to secure progressive school legislation.

CHILLICOTHE.—The city is divided into three sub-districts, and the schools in each are under the supervision of a principal who has also direct charge of one department. J. H. Brenneman is principal of the Central sub-district and of the high school; J. H. Poe is principal of the Eastern sub-district and of the grammar school therein; and J. W. Dowd is principal of the Western sub-district and of the grammar school therein. They have occupied their present positions for several years, and are experienced and successful teachers. They together constitute a board of superintendence, of which Mr. Brenneman is president. He conducts the correspondence, and, in all matters not legislated upon, has sufficient authority to secure harmony of administration. The course of study adopted at the beginning of the current school year, provides for oral and objective teaching and language lessons in the lower grades, and the instruction in all the grades is up with the times. The high school has long been one of the most thorough and successful in the State. Its spirit is seen in the fact that, during the last school year, there were but *eight* cases of tardiness, and these were by three of the fifty-eight pupils enrolled.

NEBRASKA.—We have received a very favorable report of the progress of the State Normal School at Peru from a correspondent who attended the examina-

tions held at the close of the winter term. He was much pleased with the exercises. Under the successful management of Dr. A. D. Williams, the school is attaining a reputation which is full of promise. One hundred and nine students are now in attendance, with a prospect of reaching two hundred before the close of the year. The State is now erecting a new building, which, when completed, will afford ample accommodations for several years.——We have received a printed copy of Dr. Williams's Inaugural—an excellent presentation of the normal work.

GEORGIA.—We have encouraging reports from this State. The new school system of Atlanta has developed rapidly to a complete provision for all the children of the city. The city of Brunswick inaugurated a system of graded schools in January last, and over five hundred pupils are now in attendance. Wm. B. Kendrick, formerly of Culverton, is superintendent, and has made a promising beginning.——The sixth annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association is to be held in Augusta, April 30 and May 1 and 2, 1872.

—— THE authorities of Cornell University have decided in favor of co-education. Women are to be admitted to all the exercises of the university on an equal footing with the men, and the university receives in compensation for this gallant condescension a gift of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. This step was not taken until after a thorough and extensive investigation of this question by President White, whose report overcame all objections entertained by such trustees as had been opposed to the admission of women.—*The Chronicle.*

—— THE Chinese government have decided to educate a portion of the young men of China in the language and laws of this country and in the manners and customs of the people. An appropriation of $1,500,000 has been made to meet the expenses necessary to be incurred in the next ten years. A Chinese gentleman, Mr. Yung Wing, who was educated in Yale College, has been engaged to take charge of thirty of these young men to the United States. They are designed to become students of this university, and will probably enter Yale College, following the course of Mr. Yung Wing. Each year this number is to be increased by the addition of thirty new students.--*College Courant.*

CORRESPONDENCE AND QUERIES.

MR. EDITOR: I have received from Mr. M. C. Stevens, of Salem, a comment on my note in your January number, in which I use the language: "This long neglected well, more than two thousand feet deep, being piped with iron, has been converted into a great magnet with its South pole at the top." Mr. Stevens suggests that it might be inferred from this statement that it took *time* to convert the iron tube into a magnet. I certainly intended no such thing, as it is a fact that any bar of iron, when held in a vertical position, or, better,

in the magnetic meridian and parallel to the inclination, instantly becomes feebly magnetic. which may be easily tested by bringing near various parts of it a delicate magnetic needle. If, while in this position, several smart blows of a hammer be given it, it retains its magnetic polarity for a short time. The same effect will follow twisting the bar while held in the same position. To this magnetic action of the earth is due the magnetism frequently observed in turnings of iron or steel produced by lathes in workshops; the magnetization of pokers, tongs, and other masses of iron, as well as, without doubt, the magnetic properties of the native black oxide of iron, called *loadstone*.

T. C. M.

MR. EDITOR: Will you, or some of your contributors, answer the following questions:

1. Write in words 6,000; write in figures five hundred: which of these operations is notation, and which, if either, is numeration?

2. Multiplication is defined to be a repetition. If you repeat two cents twice, *i. e.*, count them twice, how many cents will thus be made of them?

3. If multiplication is a process of repeating one number as many times as there are units in another, what shall we call the process indicated by these terms $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3}$?

4. Business men in performing multiplication say five 5's are twenty-five; six 6's are thirty-six, etc.: what objection is there to teaching children to do the same thing?

5. Our text-books tell us that $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{2}$ is a compound fraction, and that $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2}$ is a case of multiplication: what is the difference between the two expressions, either in operation or in sense?

F.

MR. EDITOR: We seek information concerning an item in grammar. In the sentence, "His being a citizen secures his safety", the noun "citizen" is called the nominative attribute of an abridged sentence; but in the sentence, "We think him to be a citizen", it is parsed as the objective after "to be", agreeing with "him" before "to be." Why this difference of case when each abridged sentence is precisely the same in its unabridged form, viz., "That he is a citizen"? By giving information on this point, you will much oblige,

Yours, etc., R. P. MERCER.

MR. EDITOR: In reading "Sec. 1" should I say section *one* or section *first*? Should I read "Chapter XII" chapter *twelve* or chapter *twelfth*? "Page 201", page two hundred and *one* or page two hundred and *first*?

In parsing should I say rule *one* or rule *first*?

Should I say two and two-thirds' *time* or *times*? 2 + 3 *are* 5 or *is* 5? 7 — 4 *are* 3 or *is* 3?

K.

MR. WHITE: Please give in your journal, if convenient, a good mode of explaining the fact of the sun's shining through a window in the north side of a house, located due north and south, a phenomenon occurring during the early morning and just before the setting of the sun in all places without the tropics, and, the higher the latitude, the longer the sun shines into the window? M.

BOOK NOTICES.

ERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES; Embracing Colton's New Introductory
d Colton's Common School Geography. By G. WOOLWORTH COL-
k: Sheldon & Co.

eable excellence of this series is the number of books composing
g believed that but two books are needed to present all of local
geography that can be profitably taught in elementary schools.
is must be taught orally from nature, and when this primary oral
ted, the pupil needs a compact text-book containing maps not
ails, and presenting only the outline and more interesting facts,
any, mathematical geography. An oral developement of each les-
and prepare the pupil for the intelligent study of the text. This
ite course. The pupil next needs a fuller and more scientific
the facts of physical geography are made the basis—that is, a good
eography. If the subject is pursued further, a text-book present-
of the earth's surface, the *science* of Geography, is needed. This
the demand of our schools in this branch of study.

oductory" meets our ideal of a first book in amount of matter and
t presents the more elementary facts of mathematical, political,
tive geography, in a very simple and teachable form. In using
ld omit the mathematical sections. The maps are studied first by
ons which require the location of places to be discovered and
estions are followed by "Review Exercises" which present an
describing the location of places and "fixing them in the mind."
text contains clear and brief statements, and is broken into short
the chief word in neat "law-italic" letter. The maps are polit-
ed on the plan of Mitchell's. There is no attempt to present the
land surface.

School Geography" also meets our ideal in amount of matter,
nent is essentially the same as that of the "Introductory." The
precedes the descriptive text, the true arrangement, we think.
emisphere maps, in the first part of the book, are *physical*, repre-
aps too slight a difference of color, the lowland plains and the
e oceanic currents, and, in a few succeeding lessons, the general
geography are given as the "ground work of the whole." The
wever, embody, to any considerable extent, the "New Geography."
are all political, but the descriptive text covers a wide range of
surface, soil, climate, productions, etc. A very valuable chapter
is placed near the close of the book.

oth books are clear in outline and attractive in appearance and the
tions are pertinent and beautiful. Their entire mechanical execu-

at this new series is a thoroughly revised edition of the Colton's
ublished by Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., and which we used
ars ago with a good degree of satisfaction.

MANUAL; containing a Treatise upon the Discipline of the School
rs upon the Teacher's Qualifications and Work. By HIRAM ORCUTT,
: Thompson, Bigelow & Brown.

a manual of helpful suggestions addressed to the thousands of
ieve in the methods of instruction and discipline, which have long

been used in the better class of New England schools. These suggestions are drawn from an extended and successful experience in the school-room, and are eminently practical. Many of them first appeared in a little manual by the same author, entitled "Gleanings from School-Life Experience," published some fourteen years ago—a work read by many hundreds of teachers with profit. The greater part of the work is devoted to "The Discipline of the School," including organization, government, instruction. There are a very few suggestions under the first head named, which we would not state quite so positively. We doubt the propriety of a teacher's taking an early opportunity to announce the necessary school laws which are to be strictly obeyed. The fewer the "laws" announced at the opening of a school and the less said about their strict enforcement the better. The laws of a school should, as a general rule, be enacted as cases of misconduct may make them necessary, and, when a law has done its work, it should be repealed. There should be no dead statutes in the teacher's code. We most heartily agree with the statement that laws, *when made*, should be enforced. The aim of the teacher should be so to discipline his school that each pupil may be "a law unto himself"—not an impracticable theory as the experience of many teachers attests. Many of the author's expedients can not, of course, be adopted under all circumstances, but no inquiring teacher can read them without personal benefit. They show the art of a skillful disciplinarian. The section on "Good Manners" is refreshing reading. "Our Children," says the author, "in the family and school practice only rudeness and insubordination"—a sweeping assertion. He also draws a discouraging contrast between "the *old* and the *new* civilization, touching the habits of social life." It is doubtless sadly true that too little attention is given to the cultivation of good manners in children, but the fact that certain conventional "forms" have become obsolete, is no evidence that true politeness does not exist. Many of the precepts and rules quoted by the author from an ancient book on "Good Manners," are excellent, but others are based on social distinctions which are inconsistent with a democratic civilization. But it is not our purpose to criticise, but rather to call the attention of teachers to this excellent manual. It ought to be read by every teacher in the country.

THE ART OF TEACHING SCHOOL. A Manual of Suggestions for the Use of Teachers and School Authorities, Superintendents, Controllers, Directors, Trustees, and Patrons of Public Schools and Higher Institutions of Learning. How to Establish, Organize, Govern and Teach Schools of all Grades, and What to Teach. By J. R. SYPHER. Philadelphia: J. M. Stoddart & Co. 1872.

This work contains much truth and many valuable suggestions, but the author is entirely too positive and dogmatic. When any one assumes that he has "touched bottom" on all the great subjects of education, and is qualified to play "Sir Oracle" we cannot help greatly discounting his pretensions. There are yet two sides to many of the most vital and practical educational topics, and he who assumes to be a teacher of teachers, should not dogmatize too much in their discussion. We can not accept the author's theory of public-school education, on which his methods are so largely based, and we hope there is little danger that this theory will ever be accepted by the directors of public schools. Our system of public education should, of course, be practical, but it can not be run in the narrow groove of mere business utility. The schools must furnish culture as well as teach useful knowledge; they must prepare their pupils to be *men* as well as workmen. The author's views on text-books are not above question. His statement that, with the exception of reading, there should be but one text-book in each branch of study, is, at least, as easily answered as sustained. It is, doubtless, true that many of our popular series contain too many books, but their reduction to one

is the opposite extreme, as experience fully proves. The author's f instruction seem to us sketchy, indicating superficial work. There are, nany practical suggestions in the work, and it probes a goodly number ı teaching and school management.

ATIONAL YEAR-BOOK. 1872. A Hand-Book of Reference, comprising a f American Public School Laws, Systems of Instruction, and Interesting Pertaining to Schools and Colleges, ranging from Professional Anecdotes tional Statistics. Published annually. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

re title sufficiently indicates the character of this work. The digest of s fills seventy pages, and the summary of public school operations thirty. dred pages are the most valuable portion of the book, most of the sucpics being too cursorily treated to be of special value. The book is not rrors. Under the head of "State Notes Educational" we learn that the buque, with its prosperous schools, is in *Ohio*, but the most singular error record is this: "State Superintendent:—Thomas D. Crow, State Commis-Common Schools, Columbus." This is corrected in an errata, but with an n that needs to be explained. The book contains much useful informaome padding.

IR MIAMI AND OTHER POEMS. By W. H. VENABLE. Cincinnati: J. Hol-Co. 1872.

ms by "The Teacher Poet" included in this elegant little volume, are ed by a perfection of rhythm and a beauty of expression worthy of high their special charm to us is their praiseful tribute to the common aspects and the humble scenes of ordinary life. As we read "June on the Mi-ived over again the quiet joys of our sober boyhood. The once familiar woods, the "rounded hills", the "slumbrous valley", and the low-sunk rattling in her sleep", all reappeared touched with the golden light of ıories. We heard again not only the ravishing songs of birds, but the lody of the voices of the dear companions of our childhood. We brush ear as we count the number whose "sun of mortal life is set." The gem ction is "The Teacher's Dream", which, in poetic merit, is worthy of ır fame of Longfellow.

OUR EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGES.

INE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. VI. A. P. Stone, Resident Editor. irston, Publisher, Portland, Maine. $1.50 a year.

CHER. Vol. XXV. Published by the Massachusetts Teachers' Associa-n. $1.50 a year.

DE ISLAND SCHOOLMASTER. Vol. XVIII. Thomas W. Bicknell, Editor. twell, Business Manager, Providence, R. I. $1.50 a year.

NECTICUT SCHOOL JOURNAL. New Series, Vol. II. I. N. Carleton and W. Managing Editors. Charles C. Chatfield & Co., Publishers, New Haven, a year.

RICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY. Vol. IX. J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., New York. $2.00 a year.

VERSITY MONTHLY. Vol. II. University Publishing Company, New altimore. $1.00 a year.

ANIA SCHOOL JOURNAL. Vol. XX. J. P. Wickersham, Editor. J. P. n & Co., Publishers, Lancaster, Pa. $1.50 a year.

IONAL NORMAL. Vol. IV. R. H. Holbrook, Editor. J. Holbrook & Co., Cincinnati, O. $1.50 a year.

SCHOOL JOURNAL. Vol. XVII. W. A. Bell, Editor and Publisher, In-Ind. $1.50 a year.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL ADVOCATE. Vol. II. S. Hawes, Editor and Publisher, Indianapolis, Ind. $1.00 a year.

THE ILLINOIS TEACHER. Vol. XVIII. E. W. Coy, Editor. N. C. Nason, Publisher, Peoria, Ill. $1.50 a year.

THE CHICAGO SCHOOLMASTER. Vol. V. Aaron Gove, Editor. Schoolmaster Company, Normal, Illinois. $1.00 a year.

THE MICHIGAN TEACHER. Vol. VII. H. A. Ford, Editor and Publisher, Niles, Mich. $1.25 a year.

THE SCHOOL. Vol. I. Edited and published at the Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Mich. $1.50 a year.

WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. II. Samuel Fallows and John D. Pradt, Editors and Publishers. Madison, Wis. $1.50 a year.

THE MINNESOTA TEACHER. Vol. V. W. W. Payne, Editor. D. Ramaley, Publisher, St. Paul, Minn. $1.50 a year.

IOWA SCHOOL JOURNAL. Vol. XIII. Edwards and Green, General Editors and Publishers, Des Moines, Iowa. $1.50 a year.

THE KANSAS EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL. John A. Banfield and R. B. Dilworth, Editors. Banfield & Fitch, Publishers, Topeka, Kansas. $1.50 a year.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. New Series, Vol. V. J. B. Merwin, Editor and Publisher, St. Louis, Mo. $1.50 a year.

ARKANSAS JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. III. Thomas Smith, Editor. James Coates, Publisher, Little Rock, Ark. $1.50 a year.

THE CALIFORNIA TEACHER. Vol. IX. O. P. & A. L. Fitzgerald, Editors. California Educational Society, San Francisco, Cal. $2.00.

HOME AND SCHOOL—Morton's Monthly. Vol. I. John P. Morton & Co., Publishers, Louisville, Ky. $1.50 a year.

MISSISSIPPI EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL. Vol. I. H. R. Pease, Editor and Publisher, Jackson, Miss. $2.00 a year.

THE EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL OF VIRGINIA. Vol. III. M. W. Haslewood, Business Agent, Richmond, Va. $1.00 a year.

THE MONTHLY VISITOR. Vol. II. John J. Morris and William B. Rodman, Editors and Proprietors, Norfolk, Va. $2.00 a year.

THE WESTERN. Thos. Davidson, Editor. E. F. Hobort & Co., Publishers, St. Louis. $2.00 a year.

THE COLLEGE COURANT. Vol. X. A Weekly Paper. Charles B. Dudley, Managing Editor. Charles C. Chatfield & Co., Publishers, New Haven, Ct. $4.00 a year.

THE COLLEGE REVIEW. Vol. III. William L. Stone, Editor. Stone, Jordan & Thompson, Publishers, New York. $2.00 a year.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. XXV. Toronto, Province of Ontario.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Vol. XVI. Quebec, Province of Quebec.

——WE call attention to Cowdery's Sliding and Reversible Blackboard, advertised in April number. It is the result of years of experiment, and its complete adaptation to the school-room has been fully tested and settled in the Sandusky schools. No new school building should be furnished with blackboards until the claims of this new invention have been examined. Every institute lecturer who uses the blackboard for illustration, or for giving an analysis of his instruction, will heartily thank the committee that supplies him with this board.

WANTED.—A situation as Principal of High School, or Superintendent of Schools in a large town, by a graduate of Dartmouth College, who has had six years experience as Principal and Teacher of Classics, Mathematics, and Natural Sciences. Address: C. F., (care of Ohio Educational Monthly), Columbus, O.

SITUATION WANTED.—A gentlemen, who for sixteen years has been principal of an academic institution of high grade, will accept a good position either in a college or public school. Satisfactory references will be given. Address, stating the nature of the position and salary, TEACHER (care of *Western Christian Advocate*), CINCINNATI, OHIO.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER:

A MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

Vol. II. JUNE, 1872. No. 6.

NATURE THE TEACHER OF CHILDHOOD.

BY PROF. E. B. ANDREWS.

To every healthful and contemplative mind Nature is a revelation of thoughts, and not only do these thoughts imply a Thinker or Author on the one hand, and a student on the other, but, also, that the student who comprehends these thoughts, must have a mind akin to that of the Author. As the designer of the telescope contemplated that beings of the same nature with himself would understand and use that instrument, and as the author of a book contemplates that persons with mental structure like his own will think over his recorded thoughts, so there must be in the Divine Mind the contemplation of a class of intelligent beings who shall appreciate the works of creation and be profited by them, and also that these beings must be akin in their intellectual nature to the Creator himself, in order to recognize and understand his thoughts and plans as embodied in material forms. He who gave nature her voices, created in man an ear to hear them. It does not exhaust the significance of nature in her forms and processes of beauty to say, with Hugh Miller, that they were designed to gratify the Divine taste or God's love of the beautiful. It is only when we gather up all the productions of the Divine Worker, and see how their thousand lines of thought all converge toward man created in the image of God and with the very tastes of God, that the creation comes before our minds with the force and grandeur of its true

significance. Man is wonderfully adjusted to the outward creation. His bodily senses are the inlets by which the various forces and scenes of nature reach the soul to delight, instruct, and exalt it.

That is a wonderful epoch in the history of the child when its soul is brought by means of the senses into communion with the universe, its home. Every hour some new scene or process in nature is photographed upon the sensitive soul, and these pictures constitute the materials which that mind will ever afterward use. Upon the distinctness and vividness of these pictures depend the distinctness and value of all subsequent mental operations. Suppose a little child, in his rambles, rests under a tree. He gazes up into its top and wonders. He hears the wind and sees the swaying of the branches against the sky, and is filled with new wonder. He sees the vast top growing out of the body and the latter growing out of the ground, and wonders still more. Now in all these wonderings he obtains a vivid idea of a tree,—an idea which can never be effaced,—and by and by, when he has learned his letters and spelled out the word *tree*, there arises at once in his mind a perfect and vivid image of a tree. All distinct impressions must first come from nature. Suppose you wish to impart to a young child his first idea of a brook. A description of a brook, or a picture of one, gives to his mind no distinct idea of a lively running stream. The child must see a brook, must wander on its banks, watch its sparkling ripples and whirling eddies, and hear its babbling noise. If the impression is well made, it is ineffaceable forever. I doubt not that those impressions and images of natural scenery, of woodland and meadow and mountain, which were imprinted upon the mind of the poet Bryant when a little child, are the very images which, afterward expressed in poet's verse, have made him the most exquisite pastoral poet of his time. He to whose mind nature, hindered by the interference of untimely teachers, has given only blurred copies of herself, will always fail in after life to make any distinct impressions upon other minds. His education has been spoiled in its incipient foundations. We little realize our indebtedness to nature.

In the *first* place, we obtain from the forms and scenes and processes of nature no small part of all our language. The word spirit, which now signifies the very opposite of matter, meant originally breath or wind, this being the natural symbol of an unseen force. Words now expressing states of the soul, like

sincerity (from *sine cera*, without wax, concealing cracks or flaws in Roman pottery, or without wax in honey—in one case a sincere vase and in the other sincere honey), had their origin in material forms or processes. Take, again, the word conspiracy, a breathing together of persons engaged in secret whispered consultation. In order, therefore, to understand language properly, it is necessary to know those prior meanings of words which refer to objects and movements that pertain to the outward and material realm of being. We have first the material objects and processes, then words expressing these, and finally these words are used to denote ideas of an intellectual and spiritual nature. As the firm ocean bed holds the water, ever shaping itself to the many inequalities of that bed, while over all rests the more flexible, subtle air as by an invisible presence, so nature, in her manifold forms and scenes, underlies words which represent these forms and scenes, while yet higher we find the more etherial and spiritual forms of thought needing and using all below for fit expression. The knowledge of the natural, therefore, comes first in order, and it is of the very highest importance that this knowledge should be as distinct and full as possible. The many senses of the young child should ever be kept busy in gaining from nature the precious treasures he must use in all his after life.

Again, nature is our teacher in furnishing symbols of higher truths. As the material world was made for man, and is uniform in its modes and forms, we are so created as to find in these a language more full and comprehensive than words,—one which, like nature herself, is unchangeable, and is, consequently, suited to all men and to all times. Hence a symbol is entirely independent of written or spoken language, and may be set forth in hieroglyphics, as by the Egyptians in their sacred picture writing, or in sculpture, as in the winged bulls and other carved forms of the Ninevites. And where words are used, a few only are necessary, and these are such as are easily understood and can be easily translated from one language to another. This is doubtless one reason why the Bible, and especially the prophetic parts of it, designed for all men, of all tongues, and of all ages, should be so largely made up of symbols. But symbolism in some of its manifold forms enters into all life, and we could not get on for an hour without it. The value and force of the symbol depend upon the definiteness of our conception of the fact in nature serving as the basis of the symbol. For example, a child

might not at first understand why the word light should signify knowledge and the word darkness signify ignorance; much less, perhaps, the higher spiritual meaning of the word light as used by Him who called himself "the light of the world." But, by obtaining a vivid conception of the light of day as contrasted with the darkness and gloom of night, he gradually learns to apply the term light to higher uses. If he is ignorant of a matter, he finds that he is in the dark in regard to it, and he soon learns to call knowledge light, and thus passes upward to the highest spiritual significance of terms derived primarily from the simplest phenomena of nature. Using his bodily eyes, he at last reaches spiritual discernment.

Suppose a child watches, for the first time, a gardener while planting a seed. It is a new fact to him. In a few days he finds that from that seed in the ground has come forth a living and growing plant, which in time produces flowers and new seeds. He connects in his mind that growth with the soil, warmed by the sun and moistened by the rain. The knowledge thus gained, simple as it may appear, is one of the grand acquisitions of his life. If before this you had attempted to teach him by abstract and metaphysical methods the relations of truth to the human mind, it would have been an entire waste of labor; but now when you liken the truth to a seed and the mind to the soil in the garden, he sees at once a relation, and his quickened imagination runs out the analogy in various directions, as he recalls all the circumstances under which the seed germinated and the plant grew and bore flowers and seed. That child is now prepared to understand the beautiful parable of the "Sower and the Seed."

Again, nature is a teacher in furnishing us in her scenes and processes, the foundation of parables. Trench has well said:

> "God, besides his revelation in words, has another and an elder, and one, indeed, without which it is inconceivable how that other could be made, for from this it appropriates all it signs of communication. This entire moral and visible world, from first to last, with its kingdoms and its subjects, its parents and its children, its sun and its moon, its sowing and its harvest, its sleeping and its waking, its birth and its death, is from beginning to end a mighty parable, a great teacher of supersensuous truth, a help at once to our faith and to our understanding."

Allied to the parable, though on different sides of it, are the fable and the allegory. In childhood we learn the fable; in manhood we use its moral. In the allegory in childhood we fully accept the characters and scenes as real. We people the Pil-

grim's Progress of the dreamer of Bedford jail with living characters. The Giants are real, the slough of Despond is a true bog, and the hill Difficulty an undoubted steep. The mind of the child is filled with pictures, so perfect and vividly drawn, that they will scarcely need retouching for a life time. There are both imagination and faith in the child's reading of allegories. His imagination gives him the full play of the story, and his faith makes it real and life-like. His faith brings him back to nature, and hence all the story seems natural. But it must be remembered that the reading of nature, which makes the subsequent reading of the allegory pleasant, takes place in the earliest years of childhood.

Again, it is to be remarked that in nature is laid the foundation of all true poetry. The poet is an interpreter of nature. If the child receives only half-formed impressions from the outward world, or if impressions originally distinct are blurred and half obliterated by unfriendly influences from parents or teachers, that child will not only not be a poet and not love poetry, but his mental life will be fearfully prosaic and his words unendurably dull. The fine touches of fancy and taste which the poet gives, and which are found here and there in the writings and utterances of all men of genius, are lost on such a mind. Such an unimaginative person always loses the force and value of those words the poet so constantly uses, which are material in their origin, and losing these he loses much, if not all, of the higher significance and beauty of the language. Take the following lines of Shakspeare in Macbeth, and mark the words (italicized) chosen to represent states and conditions of the soul:

> "Canst thou not minister to a mind *diseased*,
> *Pluck* from the memory a *rooted* sorrow,
> *Raze* out the *written* troubles of the brain,
> And with some sweet oblivious *antidote*
> *Cleanse* the *stuffed* bosom of that perilous *stuff*
> Which *weighs* upon the heart?"

Or take another passage from the second part of King Henry the Eighth:

> "Beaufort's red sparkling eyes *blab* his heart's malice,
> And Suffolk's *cloudy* brow his *stormy* hate;
> Sharp Buckingham *unburdens* with his tongue
> The envious *load* that lies upon his heart."

The beauty and force of this and of all poetry lie in the use of these material or form words which are rendered distinct or filmy, just as nature with her forms and processes is allowed

to present herself to the mind in its earlier years. There is life power and poetic power in words rightly learned, but how often are children so trained that language is to them little better than a collection of girdled trees.

What has been said of poetry, may, with only slight modification, be said of all true eloquence. Vivid conceptions are the life and inspiration of the orator, and the power of being vivid, the power of giving such projection or outwardness to a scene or picture illustrating and enforcing some great truth or principle, and without which no orator can sway his audience, is derived only from those habits of observing outward nature formed in very early years. There is sometimes wonderful power in simply connecting some simple phenomenon in nature with an important event. Napoleon inspired his soldiers with new courage upon the morning of a battle when, beholding the rising sun, he exclaimed, "Behold the sun of Austerlitz"! Still more sublime were the words of Cromwell when, pointing to the rising sun just before the battle of Dunbar, he exclaimed, "Let God arise and let His enemies be scattered."

Again, we have in nature the foundation of all art. Man is not properly a creative being: he is rather cognitive. It is only after he has gathered his materials from nature, that the artist groups them in new forms of beauty and grace. Hence that art alone is true art, which is, at the same time, true to nature. Cole, in his series of paintings entitled the "Voyage of Life", has told the story of human life by simply causing a single individual in a boat to pass through varying scenery, now upon a serene and now upon a roughened current, now dashing between frowning walls of rock and now gliding through beautiful meadows, now passing beneath summer and fleecy skies and now beneath overshadowing and appalling clouds gleamy with lightning. To a listless observer of nature, these paintings would have no significance. If a man ever becomes an artist in the highest sense, or, indeed, if one is even to have a loving and reverent appreciation of art, he must obtain when a child from nature herself a vivid impression of her forms and moods.

The so-called natural sciences, which in this century are becoming so important and so honored, involve such a careful observation of the forms and processes of nature, that few can hope to accomplish much in any scientific walks, whose habits of observing have not been formed in childhood. It is impossible to overestimate the mental benefits arising from the careful study

of nature. There is not only the definite knowledge gained, but there is in the very study a stimulating and quickening effect upon the mind. Another tendency is to beget fairness and candor of mind. The mind of a scientific man should be so free from prejudice and previous commitments that every new fact will have its due weight. The mind of the chemist can only be satisfied with the exact facts as revealed by the balance and by chemical reactions. These facts and the necessary generalizations arising when the facts are grouped, are his truths, and he has firm faith in them. Contrast the training of a boy in nature's school with the training he sometimes gets among scheming, over-reaching men, who have little faith in any thing or any body. In the one case the growth of candor is almost a necessity, and in the other an almost impossibility. So noble a virtue is candor, that, if the study of nature secured no other benefit to the soul than the promotion of this virtue, no wise and true parent could well withhold from his child every advantage for this study. The child unless hindered will of himself learn many great scientific truths. Indeed, childhood is the era of scientific acquisition. Every day he is gathering new facts, and from many of these facts he unconsciously deduces the broadest generalizations. In later school days he learns the harder names of gravity, impenetrability, caloric, and the like, but he already knows the facts involved in them. Now I hesitate not to say, that the young child makes discoveries in science and deduces generalizations far grander and far richer in practical import to him than any made by Newton or Cuvier. These discoveries stimulate and ennoble him not only in the same way the Newtons and Cuviers were ennobled, but relatively to a far higher degree. The first few years of childhood are the great scientific epoch of man's earthly existence.

There is again a fine moral influence from communion with nature. The wise and loving mother is almost constantly, although often unconsciously, appealing to this influence. Coleridge has referred to this effect of nature so well and so beautifully, that I quote his words:

> "With other ministrations thou, O Nature,
> Healest thy wandering and distempered child.
> Thou pourest on him thy soft influences,
> Thy sunny hues, fair forms, and breathing sweets,
> Thy melody of woods and winds and waters,
> Till he relent and can no more endure
> To be a jarring and dissonant thing

Amid this general dance and minstrelsy;
But bursting into tears wins back his way,
His angry spirit healed and harmonized
By the benignant touch of love and beauty."

Natural beauty being the symbol of moral beauty, the child early sees and feels the transition. Indeed, in no period of life is this transition so easily made as in childhood.

I have thus shown, at some length, the value and force of nature as a teacher of childhood. Had space permitted, I could have largely expanded and illustrated the points presented. We have seen how generously nature has provided for the education and development of the child. The first duty of the teacher is to recognize and appreciate what has already been done. To undervalue nature as a teacher, or to be jealous of her, is to make a fatal mistake. The pictures which nature has painted upon the child's mind, are too perfect and beautiful to be handled roughly. The teacher must pass carefully and reverently through this royal gallery of nature's masterpieces, marring and blurring nothing. Hence the first and grandest of all the qualifications of a teacher is the power to understand the nature of a child's mind and the inestimable worth of the treasures which nature has stored and is storing within it. The teacher may, however, find that in many cases nature has not had free scope for her work, and the child may never have been truly introduced to the outward world. The poor child may have been so hindered and obstructed by the surroundings of a completely artificial life that it has never held any free and joyous communion with nature. While the earth is bright with beauty and vocal with harmony, the child may have really seen nothing and heard nothing. It is the first great duty of the teacher to introduce this child to nature, and upon the wisdom and thoroughness of this introduction, the distinctness and value of all his subsequent mental operations depend. The teacher must enter lovingly into this work of introduction as one who has himself been blessed by nature. A stupid teacher will, for the most part, have stupid and stolid pupils. The method of object teaching, now happily being introduced into our schools, will utterly fail in the hands of a teacher whose mind has not first been rendered bright and vivid by communion with the thousand scenes and processes of nature; but, with a suitable teacher, this method will give the most valuable results.

In conclusion, should not the youngest class in our schools be

furnished with the *very best* teachers? It is too often thought—and the thought is constantly acted upon—that any kind of teacher will do for the little ones. Is not this the greatest mistake to be found in our educational system?

NATURAL SCIENCE IN THE COMMON SCHOOL.

BY T. C. MENDENHALL.

The editorial in the April number of this journal upon "Natural Science in Public Schools", is a very suggestive and valuable discussion of what seems to me to be one of the most important of the many educational problems which are now undergoing a solution. Having for some time watched the rise and growth of this feeling in favor of the introduction of the study of natural science in the common schools, I desire to cast my vote upon this question, and also to present the opinions of a few of the most learned and capable scientists of the present age.

In the article referred to, the question is divided into "can we?" and "shall we?" The first is promptly answered affirmatively, with the addition of the tremendous "*if* we have competent teachers." I may be excused, perhaps, for paying some attention to both of these interrogations. It seems to me difficult to separate them. If we *can* introduce into our common schools the study of so nutritious and health-giving a thing as natural science, we should. If we *must* introduce it, it becomes us to select such departments as can be successfully taught in our schools, with the assistance of the limited teaching machinery now at our command.

As stated in the beginning, it is doubtless well known to many who have been interested in this matter, that the work has been commenced by a sort of spontaneous outgrowth at nearly the same time in many parts of the world. The many recent and wonderful victories of science have given to its study a fresh impetus, and the taste of the people has so grown in that direction, that it is now almost imperatively demanded that in our common schools some branch of natural science shall be placed side by side with arithmetic, grammar, and geography. In the mind of the educator at once arises the troublesome yet vital

questions, What? and Where? and How? As throwing some light on these questions, allow me to quote the opinions of some eminent Englishmen, brought out before a select committee of the House of Lords on the Public School Bill.

Thomas Henry Huxley, F.R.S., says:

"In no other way than by scientific training can the mind of a boy be disciplined in inductive reasoning and in the essential habit of seeking knowledge at first hand without the intervention of authority. . . . The information supplied by science is of paramount practical importance, inasmuch as modern civilization and its products are unintelligible without that information; and of paramount speculative importance, because the infusion of scientific method and the importation of scientific ideas is all that distinguishes the philosophy and the theology of the present day from that of a thousand years ago. . . . Physics lie at the foundation of all science, and if nothing else were taught, it would be a great gain to have the youth of this country soundly instructed in the laws of the elementary forces—gravitation, heat, light, and so forth. . . . The state of knowledge regarding the purely physical sciences is such that these elements can be taught as thoroughly as those of grammar or those of mathematics. . . . On the whole, I am strongly in favor of confining instruction in science for disciplinal purposes to elementary physics (with incidental chemistry) and botany with the addition of the outlines of human physiology."

Dr. William Allen Miller states that he considers that instruction should be given in physics, chemistry, of the non-metallic elements, and a certain amount of physiology.

John Tyndall, F.R.S., says:

"In our public schools instruction should, in my opinion, be given in elementary physics, and the first principles of chemistry. . . . Instruction in these subjects should, in my opinion, be rendered imperative. . . . I speak from practical experience when I say, that the subjects above-mentioned may be rendered intensely interesting to boys, and that the love for such studies which a competent teacher could evoke, would be a powerful aid to intellectual discipline. . . . Much may be accomplished by extremely simple means; *how* much is only known to those who are accustomed to devise new methods of experimental demonstration. I do not think that the cost of apparatus could be regarded as an objection of the least weight to the introduction of science into our public schools. . . . In addition to elementary physics and chemistry, I should recommend the introduction of botany, and to these three sciences I would, for the present, confine attention. . . . With regard to the time to be devoted to science, six or seven hours a week would be of immense importance; even less than this would, at the end of three or four years, sum itself up to something extremely valuable."

I might continue my quotations, including testimony given elsewhere by scientists whose influence as teachers as well as scholars is great. I can not omit the experience and opinion of W. Mattieu Williams, whose reputation is world-wide. He relates that, as long ago as between 1848 and 1854, he was engaged, in connection with Mr. George Combe and Mr. James Simpson, in an experiment of teaching physical, economical, and moral

science to children of the poorer classes of all ages between five and sixteen, in Edinburgh. He says that the most difficult and unsatisfactory branch which he attempted was orthography, and in this difficulty many of us can heartily sympathize with him, while the easiest were those branches of physical science which he was able to teach by the aid of direct objective illustrations. The alphabet was a work of many weeks; the human skeleton of but a few days. In the first step of intellectual training, viz., the exercise of the senses, science was easier than the first of the "three R's." He now offers, if the London School Board think it desirable, to repeat the experiment, about twelve children of nearly equal ages, taken at random, street Arabs, if they please, to form the class.

So many earnest pleas and recommendations for this reform in the popular education of England have not, of course, been allowed to pass unnoticed, and the work of popular and primary instruction in science has been entered into in Great Britain, by all from the Government down, with an activity which we Americans, generally in the lead in matters of this kind, may well emulate. The British Association for the Advancement of Science has, on several occasions, offered its services for the furtherance of this movement. Penny lectures on science have been given with great success in many of the principal cities and towns, and we are to have immediately from the pens of some of the most distinguished specialists in that country, or, indeed, any country, a series of "Science Primers", especially adapted to this work. The men engaged in this are Prof. Huxley, so well known as a physiologist; Prof. Roscoe, who is to write a "Primer of Chemistry"; and Prof. Balfour Stewart, already the author of one of the most perfect text-books on physics extant, one which the writer has used with great success, is to give us a "Primer of Physics." These books, I am happy to say are to be republished in this country by the Appletons, and will be ready for circulation before this shall meet the eye of the reader.

I have not referred at such length to the matter of science teaching in England because we have done nothing in this country, but rather to controvert the opinion held by some that this movement, in favor of a renovated course of study for our common schools, is local and unimportant in its character. In the United States much has been done—and well done. In Cleveland, Columbus, St. Louis, and many other large cities, the

elements of science are studied in grades below the High School. In the way of books, we have many excellent ones. Although not always pure in their science, nor perfectly adapted to the grade of instruction for which they are intended, in the hands of faithful and industrious teachers they are verifying the predictions of the friends of science. We have the excellent little treatise on botany by Miss Youmans, and the admirable grammar and common school text-books on physics by Hotze, Cooley, and others.

I desire especially to claim that this instruction will finally find its place in the common district schools of our land, and I want to say that, in my opinion, the difficulties of its introduction are greatly overrated. Of course we shall have difficulties to contend with, but the teaching of science may be made so attractive and so valuable as easily to succeed in overthrowing them. The editor of this journal is right when he says we must have good teachers, but we must have good teachers to succeed in any kind of instruction. Let our teachers once appreciate the real importance and value of instruction in science, and, after all, the real ease with which they may undertake it, and I do not fear for its success.

Objection is frequently made to the study of physics, for instance, on account of the expense of the necessary apparatus, and the impossibility of getting boards of education to procure it. This objection is in my opinion of no great weight. As Prof. Tyndall says, very much may be done with very little, and so much that the teacher will never regret having invested in the little. What if boards of education do at first refuse to purchase the needed supplies? A few years ago teachers were obliged to build their own fires and sweep their school-rooms, but we have educated the people a little in this respect. This certainly never could have been done by refusing to teach with such obstacles in our path. The necessary expense in this matter is greatly overestimated. I have recently supplied the teachers of the grammar schools of this city with very useful sets of apparatus at an expense of less than ten dollars each. To teach elementary science, expensive apparatus is out of place. The intelligent teacher rather wants *tools*. Suppose that the district school teacher must either purchase himself, or go without his little collection of glass tubes, magnetic needles, alcohol lamp, blow pipe, glass prism, florence flask, test tubes, etc., I submit that, even in a pecuniary sense, he can make no better invest-

ment of ten or fifteen dollars than in their purchase. Let him own them; let him establish a reputation as a successful teacher of elementary science, and he will receive a high rate of interest on his investment. "Cast thy bread upon the waters," etc.

SOME ANALYTICAL AND GRAMMATICAL PRINCIPLES.

BY A. D. WILLIAMS.*

The first essential in analysis is to ascertain definitely the several offices performed in the sentence. It will be found that, primarily, there are but two—that of identifying an object concerning which something is said, and that of expressing what is said of that object. These include all there is, or can be, in a sentence, or in language.

The subject, as a word-representative of that object, must contain a substantive element, and it may also contain one or more modifying or adjective elements, used to complete the meaning, where the substantive element does not state it with sufficient precision. In like manner, the predicate must contain a verbal element, and may also contain one or more modifying or adverbial elements, where the verbal element does not express all that is said of the subject.

But these adjective and adverbial elements must need be connected with their respective principals. We also often wish to use two or more sentences together. Hence there is another subsidiary office, that of connecting subsidiary elements to their principals, and that of connecting simple sentences together, making compound ones. The copula also performs a connecting office, connecting the attribute to the subject.

A second important principle is, that whatever is used to complete the office of any element, is to be regarded as a part of that element. In other words, the species is included in the genus. Nothing seems clearer than this; and yet it has been strangely overlooked in grammar and analysis. According to this principle, the adjective and adverbial elements are not independent elements, but parts only of the subject and predicate respectively; or, in other words, they are only species under the genus of subject and predicate. When I say, "James runs", James is the subject, and all there is of it. But when I say, "Tall James

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runs", "James" is not all the subject. It evidently requires both the substantive "James" and the adjective "tall", to identify, describe, or name that of which the predicate says something. So when I say, "Tall James, who is a fine fellow, runs", then both "James" and "tall" fail to name or identify what I am speaking about. It requires also the subordinate sentence, "who is a fine fellow", to name or identify just what I am talking about. Hence the adjective element, whether a word, a phrase, or a subordinate sentence, is clearly and necessarily *a part of this subject*, and is to be treated accordingly.

In like manner, in each of the above examples, "runs" is the predicate, and all of it. But, if I say, "James runs swiftly", runs no longer expresses all that I say or predicate of James. "Swiftly" is now a part of my predicate. If I say, "James runs swiftly up the hill", runs swiftly is no longer my predicate—what I say of James. I now say of him that he "runs swiftly up the hill", and that is my predicate, and nothing short of the whole of it expresses what I predicate of James. Again, when I say, "James runs swiftly up the hill which is so steep", runs swiftly up the hill is no longer all I predicate of James. I not only say of James that he runs, but that he runs swiftly, that he "runs swiftly up the hill", and also that he "runs swiftly up the hill which is so steep." Nothing short of all these words will now express what I predicate or say of James. And, further, if I say, "James struck John", struck does not express all I say or what I say of James. I do not affirm simply that he struck, but that he "struck John." "Struck John", therefore, is my predicate; and hence the object is not a principal element, as so many say. but is a subsidiary one, and *a part of the predicate;* and as whatever modifies the substantive part of the subject is an adjective element, and whatever modifies the verbal part of the predicate is an adverbial element, then, since the object clearly does modify the predicate and is essential to complete it, *the object is obviously to be classed among the adverbial elements.*

This principle has, indeed, been virtually conceded in the common distinctions of grammatical and logical subject and predicate; but no one has seemed to perceive all its bearings, particularly as effecting the object.

It will be perceived that the adjective and adverbial elements are not directly or strictly parts of the sentence as such, but

irts, respectively, of the subject and predicate. They are elements, herefore, of a second grade.

Another principle is, that an element or word is to be named ccording to the office it performs. If it performs the office of a ubject, then, for the time and place, it *is* a subject. If it per-orms the office of a predicate, then, in like manner, it is a pred-icate. Words have no inherent character. They are always epresentatives, standing for and representing thought. When tanding for and representing the subjects of thought, they are, herefore, subjects. When standing for and representing what is aid of those subjects, they are predicates.

Hence most grammarians now define the parts of speech, etc., y their uses. A noun is said to be a word *used* as a name. A erb is a word *used* to assert or to express being, action, or state. An adjective is a word used to modify a noun; and an adverb is word used to modify a verb, etc. The propriety of this method f defining can hardly be questioned. But, if it is not, then the general proposition that each word or element is to be named according to its use or office, in like manner, can not very well e denied. What is true in the detail, must also be true in the ggregate. What is true of each of the species, must be true of he genus.

A fourth principle is, that an element or word may perform wo or more offices at the same time, and is to be treated ac-cordingly.

This principle has also long been acknowledged in particu-ars. For instance, the old grammarians say that "What is generally a compound relative, and is equivalant to that which." In other words, they regard it as performing a double office, that f the noun "that" or "the thing", and the relative "which." So they define a preposition as, "A word used to connect words *and* to show the relation between them." That is, a preposition performs a two-fold office, that of a connective and that of "gov-erning" the objective case. They say, also, that a participle is, "A word partaking of the nature of a verb *and also* of an ad-verb." The modern grammarians call certain words "conjunc-tive adverbs"; thus assuming that they perform the office of connectives, and besides perform also the office of adverbs—two offices at the same time.

In fact, any other part of speech than an adjective, used as a part of the logical or complete subject, must necessarily perform two or more offices. It first performs its own immediate office,

and, in addition, performs an adjective office in modifying or completing the subject. In the sentence, "John's father died", "John" is a name, and is so far forth a noun. It is also a modifier of father, and, in so far as it performs this office, it is an adjective. In the sentence, "The man, who was sick, died", "who was sick" is a sentence, and performs a specific office as such in asserting a proposition, and *who* is a substantive, *was* is a verb, and *sick* is an adjective, and yet the sentence modifies man, and so also performs the office of an adjective—as a sentence, performing two distinct and different offices, and some of its parts performing still more offices.

The same thing is true of any other part of speech than an adverb, which constitutes a part of the logical predicate. It performs an office as a noun, adjective, or something else, and at the same time, as a modifier of the verb or grammatical predicate, performs an adverbial office. In the sentence, "The rose is red", red is an adjective element, modifying rose. But, as obviously constituting a part of what is asserted of the rose, it is a part of the predicate, and, as such, performs also an adverbial office. So the "object" is a noun, and, as such, is the object of a relation, and is said to be in the objective case. But, as already seen, it constitutes also a part of what is said or predicated of the subject, and, so far as this is the case, it performs an adverbial office, modifying the grammatical predicate.

The principle is, therefore, not only true, but it can not be denied without denying what all the grammarians, from Lindley Murray down, have affirmed of "what", of the preposition, and of the participle, and what the modern grammarians assert of "conjunctive adverbs", and also of what all imply in calling the substantive element and its modifiers the "logical subject", and the verbal element and its modifiers the "logical predicate." Those, therefore, who would deny that an element or word may perform two or more offices at the same time, not only fail to appreciate the principles of language, but are forty years behind the times.

These four principles, in their applications, greatly simplify analysis and grammar, and wonderfully lessen the difficulties that beset the learner's path. They cut many a Gordian knot that can not very well be untied by any possible ingenuity. They straighten tortuous windings, and make a broad highway where before there was only a blind and crooked lane. They so simplify linguistic principles, that they are easily grasped by any

ordinary comprehension. They are so comprehensive as to leave few or no anomalous usages to be puzzled over as exceptions, and resolved, if resolved at all, by far-fetched and questionable expedients.

The whole road is plain and comparatively easy. First, ascertain what offices are performed by language; second, consider in any given case which of these offices an element performs, and name it accordingly; third, notice whether it performs an independent or subsidiary office, and classify it accordingly; and, fourth, remember that, if it performs two or more offices, it is not arbitrarily to be classed in one relation alone, but in the two or more whose offices it performs.

THE ÆSTHETICS OF THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

BY MISS D. A. LATHROP, CINCINNATI, O.

There is in every child a well-defined internal sense that finds its complement and satisfaction in the outside world only in the beautiful. This æsthetic sense, like all other mental endowments, demands culture in order to its perfection of use. In the exercise of an uncultivated taste one is held as spell-bound in wide-eyed admiration before a little paint with some beads and feathers fantastically arranged, as is another with culture in the presence of the noblest creations of the masters of sculpture, painting, or poetry. What, under certain general limitations, shall represent our ideal of beauty, depends entirely upon the acuteness and tone of our intellectual and moral perceptions and discriminations.

Things possess the æsthetic element in proportion as they represent thought and feeling. That conventional language which has not its counterpart in our own minds and hearts, can mean nothing to us. As it brings to the sense impression after impression, each must find its twin, back of the physical organ, in the consciousness, thought answering to thought, or words are vain, and the organ of sense an unprofitable servant. So though beauty's voice "is gone out through all the earth, and her words to the end of the world", it is comprehended only in the terms and to the degree that the experience of him who hears has

made him competent to discover and feel the thought and passion in her tones. The same law applies here as everywhere else in education; the occasions of exercise are from without, but the increase is essentially a movement outward *under the impulse of internal forces.* If the "ten talents" are all to be employed in the service of God for our fellow men, the æsthetic element of our mental constitution must not be ignored. "It takes the ideal to blow a hair's breadth off the dust of the actual." It is everywhere plainly indicated that God means to save man in the marriage of the real and ideal in human experience; and "what God hath joined together" by such manifest bonds, "let not man put asunder." The æsthetic faculty is so clearly allied to the moral nature that through all history it has been confounded with it.

I believe teachers have no conception of the mightiness of this lever which is within their hand's reach. I know of no force by which a child can be so suddenly and effectually lifted out of the pit, into which not the *one sheep* has fallen, but the *ninety and nine lambs*, as by a judicious and persistent appeal to the love of the beautiful always found in childhood. Such is the power of beauty to influence moral sentiment and action, that the vilest sins the world knows are garnished all over with physical beauty to make Satan seem angelic.

The most despondent teacher would be willing, if she could be transformed into a beautiful and strong seraph, to assume the responsibilities of the training of a school of white-robed, golden-haired pupils on the banks of the beautiful river, among the trees laden with the fruit, and meadows gemmed with the flowers of Paradise. I do not know whether we shall be set to such delightful tasks in the land of complete and perennial beauty, but I am sure that the best and wisest of us do not compass the possibilities of our present circumstances. We do not know how to analyze beauty to its elements, and begin with its very alphabet in the development of taste. We are not wise enough in our dingy, ill-arranged, time-worn, defaced school-houses to make the most of the two, to us, prime elements of beauty, cleanliness and light. This may be because the end talked of in our theories is so distant and different from the simple beginnings of practice that we fail to discover the importance of so simple a thing as a study of the possibilities of our school-rooms; or because we are not able to make out in detail any order of procedure to develop these possibilities.

Let us imagine our teacher with her fifty children, more or less, in their school-room. Where shall she begin to make the most of her school æsthetically?

First, *cleanliness*. This is so suggestive of inward purity that the sentiment of mankind has always associated them. All the washings of ceremonial worship are but so many object lessons to moral infants, to lead to the comprehension of the spritual idea of purity of heart. How can the teacher secure most perfect cleanliness? First, as to her room. Let her see that her floors are washed, and that her walls are clean. Let the woodwork receive a fresh coat of paint, if possible; let the ceiling be whitened, and the windows be washed. Let her strive to have no more dirt in the room than there is of moral defilement in her ideal of character. Then her room becomes the embodiment of a thought, and is beautiful in proportion as this *thought* is *felt*.

An eminently practical question arises here: Who will do all this cleaning? If the teacher is scrupulous and earnest, she will find plenty of coöperation on the part of her pupils. They will be as proud of their room as she is desirous to make it pleasant for them. "The committee" will do some of it, and the patrons will assist her somewhat. What by tact and energy she can not do indirectly, she must do directly. Some woman will help her upon conditions of a little special instruction in arithmetic or book-keeping for her son. It is easily managed if there is a determination.

Then she must look after the *surroundings* of her school-house. She must be vigilant for pencil-marks and mud-spots. The outhouses must be tidy; the yards, back and front, raked and swept. The fence can be mended, if broken, by borrowing a hammer, begging some nails, and assisting a large boy to drive them. If it is so dilapidated as to be beyond her ability to repair it, she can see that all the loose pieces are carefully gathered up and put away, so that it may have an attended-to air even in its decay.

Then she can turn her attention to her *pupils*. Her trials in this direction will be greater than in the others; for, great as is the perversity of inanimate things, it is almost infinitely overmatched by that of animate bodies, and especially by that of humanity. Parents will not be interested to have their children have clean hands and feet, blacked shoes, combed hair, and mended clothing. Children are careless, and mothers are busy and careless, too. But patience wins all. By tact and firmness children will become tidy in appearance, and, before either

teacher or parents are aware, will be carrying the lessons learned in school into their home-life. So the teacher becomes the good genius of the homes of her pupils.

The teacher herself should be a model of neatness. A clean calico dress, neatly made and well-fitting, with clean collar, cuffs, and apron, are quite sufficient to produce the best effect in this regard. Whatever may be the material, every thing she wears should be scrupulously clean. It is only when she has given the most careful attention to every particular of her own person and apparel, that she can urge their care upon her pupils.

All this done, she can write out of her own experience an additional beatitude: Blessed are the physically clean, for they are in the way of understanding purity of heart.

CHIPS FROM A TEACHER'S WORKSHOP.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

I. *Observation.*

The non-observant man goes to Europe, and, upon returning, has nothing to tell except that he was sea-sick on the Atlantic, and that there are chalk-cliffs at Dover. You ask him concerning this and that interesting thing in London or Paris, and his only reply is, "I saw it,—I heard it,—but *didn't take particular notice.*" The man of sharpened perceptions and attentive habit, on the other hand, reaps a harvest of information from every field he visits. His vigilant eye quickly mirrors whatever nature and art can show; his wakeful ear is alive to every sound. To him the most ordinary scene affords matter of suggestive fact.

The first great object in the education of children should be to establish the habit of *taking particular notice.* The attention should be trained to fasten itself on each object to which it is applied, long and steadily enough to imprint a clear and deep impression on the mind. The mind may be compared to a camera obscura, and the *exposure* of objects upon its sensitive plate, if cut short, may produce only a dim blur instead of a well-defined picture. It is an encouraging fact for teachers that the perceptive and attentive faculties are highly susceptible to training, and are quite easily developed.

II. *Obstacles.*

No one who resolutely sets to work to obtain an education need be apprehensive that he must fail for want of external advantages. Failure is referable to some internal defect rather than to lack of means. Silvio Pellico, shut up for ten years in prison, added daily not only to his power of thought and imagination, but also to his stock of knowledge. His opportunities for acquisition and culture were exceedingly limited, but he made the best of adversity, and out of that best we have one of the masterpieces of literature — "My Prisons." That ripe scholar and excellent friend of ambitious students, E. E. Hale, said in a college commencement address, "To excuse yourself on account of the surroundings is as if the boy at the academy failing should say it was all Virgil's fault because he did not write in English." Courageous minds are emboldened by difficulties. They even court encounter with hardship. No one knows his own strength until put to extremity. Obstacles! How often they vanish when valiantly assailed.

III. *Education.*

Education increases power, and power increases ability to serve ourselves, our kind, and our Creator. The end of culture is service. Knowledge and discipline are both power, and are both means to usefulness. Education, in its broadest scope, is the science of which individual conduct is the art. No one can know or think too much, or act too well.

IV. *Established Propositions.*

Are there any axioms upon which to base a philosophy of education? Are there any general principles to which all educational theorizers assent? How much of the science of human culture is established beyond cavil? Upon how much conceded truth can modern educators build new edifices of thought, system, and method? What has passed out of the province of useful discussion either because of its general acceptance or its general repudiation? Do any of the following propositions need further elucidation, advocacy, or defense? or may they be regarded as fixed articles in the educational creed?

1. Man is educable.
2. Education is physical, mental, and moral.
3. Education supplies knowledge, develops faculties, and directs efforts.
4. The more man is educated, the more is he benefited.

5. Education should begin in infancy.

6. The perceptive faculties are of early development, and supply the mind with material for reflection.

7. Education prevents crime.

8. Education is a safe-guard of republican governments.

9. Education increases the sum of human happiness.

Cincinnati, O., April, 1872.

PRACTICAL HINTS.—No. VII.

BY E. O. VAILE.

It will take hours to criticise and mark that pile of compositions; and how much good will it do? Suppose I mark with scrupulous care every error in spelling, punctuation, capitals, etc., what is to be gained by it? The next set of compositions will present just the same mistakes, and about as many.

Be assured, your labor is thrown away, as far as concerns ordinary boys and girls, if it does no more than *show* them their errors. You must induce a carefulness, which is self-correcting. The great trouble in composition is, that children do not apply the knowledge which they have. They are able to correct their own mistakes, when their attention is called to them, but still they make the mistakes. What is needed is some plan to make pupils careful as far as their ability goes, and to relieve teachers of the almost useless drudgery of marking blunders, which come not from ignorance, but from a want of thoughtfulness.

Is there such a plan? I know of none that will accomplish the object perfectly. But there is such a thing as utilizing our labor by economy and skill, and enabling a certain amount of it to do double the work. Labor must be used; it is only a question as to how it is to be applied.

In the first place, do not trouble yourself to inspect compositions, until by oral and class drill your scholars understand perfectly the application of the rules you have taught. It is folly to attempt to correct general faults and ignorance by laboring with individuals. The remedy for such failings is in class instruction.

In the second place, when the work of writing is actually begun, let your pupils criticise each other. Give to each member

the class another's composition, to be marked according to a lan previously published upon the blackboard. As an illustra-on, the following scale will do, though more complete than ould be used with a class of beginners. Wherever there is a istake, let the figure indicating that error be placed upon the argin, which is always to appear at the left edge for that pur-ose. Let 1 indicate a mistake in spelling somewhere in the ne; 2, a mistake in punctuation; 3, a mistake in capitalization; , poor general appearance; 5, the use of wrong word; 6, an wkward expression; 7, a mistake in fact; *c*, a want of clearness; a want of strength, etc.,—adding particulars as your class ad-ances into higher departments of rhetoric.

When the compositions are returned to you, bearing the crit-s' names, look them over. If you discover mistakes made by ie composer, which have not been noted by the examiner, mark iem by a particular sign of your own, or with a colored pencil. eturn the compositions to their authors, and insist upon their eing what was intended to be criticised. If they can not dis-over it, or if they object to any marks, let the corrector be alled upon to explain or defend his criticisms. The success of ie plan will mainly depend upon the liberty and the encourage-ient offered to call for explanations and defence, and the free-om with which they are given. The attention should be given o every point by the whole class, and it should be made the mpire when author and critic can not agree, the last appeal eing to the teacher. If you are in the habit of "marking" our class in recitation, you can do so in this; giving to each upil what additional demerits he deserves for mistakes as critic. hen the scholars have obtained sufficient skill, judgment, and elf-reliance to defend their own positions, it may be left to the riter to detect the mistakes of his critic; and the teacher *may* e tempted to examine only those papers which have been in the ands of poor critics.

Thus, while looking over one composition, you really inspect ie work of two persons, instead of one, without any increase of abor. This mutual criticism and defence awaken interest. By riticising others, pupils derive as much benefit as from their wn production. Independent judgment is developed, if the eacher only realizes how many points must be left undecided as mply matters of taste or opinion.

It is a good plan to see that compositions are exchanged be-ween the extremes of the class, the poorest and the best writers;

for then the poorest ones may have the benefit of the best critics and of examining the models.

If there are many errors made, always require the composition to be re-written, and, without fail, to be again criticised, and then compared with the first one.

It is a very bad practice to give a class an outline, according to which every subject is to be treated. It begets vicious habits of writing. Points entirely irrelevant have to be mentioned, and strength and conciseness are impossible. "What are its qualities?" "Does it exist in nature or art?" are good topics if the subject is Iron or Glass; but how absurd if Rain or Bridges?

Nearly every subject requires an outline of its own. Children should realize the importance of a "plan" in composition; and should have their genius and originality taxed in producing abstracts as well as in composing.

SPELLING.

To spell well is no mark of scholarship. Not to spell well is everywhere regarded as vulgar and disgraceful. Hence spelling is learned rather as a duty than a pleasure. With but few exceptions the spelling of every English word needs to be learned as an isolated fact. It is a law of mental culture that isolated facts should never be learned by themselves if it is possible to connect them with anything else. Hence we make no effort to teach children to spell words which they do not understand. I should be sorry to see a pupil who could spell all the words in the English language. With us it is a law that the spelling of a word should be learned with the use of it, and not before. Whenever it is possible we assign a reason for the peculiar spelling of every word. I make these statements because it has been thought by some that our children do not spell well. Where pupils in the actual use of words fail to spell them correctly, we acknowledge their training sadly defective. For the scanty use we make of spelling-books in the early part of the course, we gladly assume the responsibility.—W. O. Hiskey.

Editorial Department.

— ALL yearly subscriptions beginning with the July issue 1871, close with number, and, according to our custom, the names of the subscribers will opped from our list, unless their continuance be requested. Those who to renew their subscription (and we trust all do), are requested to do so out delay. Enclose $1.50 in a letter, and send it at our risk. So small a ttance may be safely made in money, but larger sums should be sent in a tered letter, or by postal order or draft. We shall be greatly obliged if ubscribers in renewing will endeavor to secure other subscriptions.

— THE natural sciences have long had a more prominent place in Ameri- schools than in those of Europe. Our colleges devote considerable atten- to science, while in scientific instruction our academies and high schools tly excel Eaton and Rugby in England, or the German gymnasia, whose ses of study are largely devoted to the classics and mathematics. Nor the study of natural science in this country been wholly confined to the er schools. Some thirty years ago we studied natural philosophy in the non school of a country district in Ohio, and several years later we visited nmer school taught by a sister, who, while we were present, gave two brief interesting lessons in botany and astronomy. The elements of natural sophy were taught, with experiments, in the grammar schools of Boston than twenty years ago, and physiology was studied in the Cleveland mar schools as early, we think, as 1850. These cases of scientific in- tion, which came under our observation, may have been exceptional, but certain that such instruction has received some attention in the elemen- schools of the country. There is now a commendable movement to intro- the study of the natural sciences into all grades of American schools, to make such instruction regular and systematic. The study of nature phases adapted to each of the successive stages of school instruction, and practical problem is to adapt the one to the other. We believe that a true se of study should embrace all the great departments of knowledge, and like a spiral stairway (to use Dr. Hill's figure), it should cut off a section ach at every round of ascent. The natural sciences should not be added scholastic course as a sort of cornice or cupola. They should enter into undation and structure as an essential element. Instead of apologizing devoting so much space to this subject in this number, we would rather the thoughtful perusal of our contributors' able papers.

— THE May number of *Scribner's Monthly* contains a remarkable article led " Our Educational Outlook ", in which the American school system is

pronounced a failure in two directions. It is increasingly failing to reach the great body of the people, and the education it furnishes to the great majority of our youth is utterly aimless and worthless. The writer states that our national life began "with a population almost universally educated" (which is certainly not correct), and that at present twenty per cent. of our population is illiterate; that one-fourth is now growing up in ignorance, and that, at the present rate of decrease, in twenty-five years more than half the people of the United States will be unable to read or write. These startling statements are claimed to be based on the school statistics of the several States and the census returns. But the census of 1860 only gave the number of adult free illiterates in the country, and while the census of 1870 gives the number of adult illiterates, it is not sufficiently completed to give the adult population; and hence a comparison of adult illiteracy of 1860 and 1870 can not yet be made. The school statistics of the several States cited prove nothing. The school statistics of Ohio do not show whether a thousand or a hundred thousand of our youth are growing up unschooled, and what is true of the statistics of Ohio is true of those of all the States. We have shown this so often that it seems unnecessary to repeat the proof here. It is probable that the closing of the schools in the South by the war, may have increased temporarily the amount of white illiteracy in that section, but this has been more than offset by the large number of the colored people who have learned to read and write. We seriously doubt the statement that "the adult blacks who can not read are many thousands more to-day than when the war closed." We believe that the reverse is true. It may be that the illiteracy of the country is increasing, but the evidence of this fact is not found in Mr. Burchard's paper. But if the education furnished by the schools is worthless; if it gives those who attend "simply nothing", absenteeism is not a very great evil! As a remedy for this two-fold lamentable failure of the voluntary state school systems of the country, the writer advocates a national system of education, the putting of our school systems under national control, the States being incompetent to manage them (!); the making of school attendance compulsory, and the establishing of "*craft* schools" to supplement our elementary education. We will only add that a magazine writer who attempts to discuss so grave educational subjects, ought, at least, to understand school statistics.

—— A BERLIN correspondent of the New York *Independent* gives a very clear statement of the school issue in Prussia. Every *Gemeinde*, which answers very nearly to the English parish, has its common school or schools (*volks schule*), sustained by the state, but hitherto also under the supervision of the church of the *Gemeinde*, the parochial priest or pastor being school inspector. Where the *Gemeinde* was Catholic, the *volks* school would take the Catholic type, and where it was Protestant, the Protestant type. In the spirit of toleration, provision was made for instructing the children of the minority in their own profession, but all who were neither Catholics nor Jews were classed as Protestant, and, as a general rule, received religious instruction from Lutheran teachers. The supervision of the schools and this confessional teaching had

een so long conceded to the church, that the clergy had come to assume them s a prerogative, and thus there was a joint partnership of the church and tate in school control. With the expansion of the country and the growing pirit of national unity, it became desirable that a uniform law should govern he *volks* schools, but this unity of administration could not be secured except y a divorcement of the church from the schools. The zeal of the Ultramon- anes for Romanizing the schools by teaching the dogmas of the Vatican Council as a part of the Catholic confession, caused trouble between the two ivisions of the Catholic Church, and thus an opportunity was presented for reeing the schools from church control. This opportunity was seized by Bis- narck, and a new law has been enacted which places the administration of the chools entirely in the hands of the state, and upon the same basis throughout he Empire. The state appoints the school inspectors and assumes the power o remove them. This is a great change, and the Ultramontanes and many Protestants are clamorous against the law, but Bismarck is master of the situ- ation. His speech in advocacy of the act is said to be the ablest effort that ie has ever made.

—— The feasibility of adopting a graded course of study in the ungraded chools of country districts has been earnestly advocated by a few practical eachers, and the plan has been tried with success in several districts; but, for ome reason, neither argument nor experiment has made much impression pon the great majority of the teachers and school officers most directly in- erested in the improvement of country schools. But few articles on the sub- ect have appeared in the educational journals, and only two or three, so far as we have observed, have editorially commended the plan. We expected that he system would be first adopted and tested in districts favored with county or ocal supervision, but county superintendents generally seem indisposed to give it a trial. Why is this? If it be practicable to divide a country school nto from five to eight regular classes, and to advance these classes over a sys- ematic course of study, with a definite standard of promotion, the adoption of such a system would be a very great improvement upon the present order of hings. Our country schools are now broken into fragments of classes, and he pupils are, as a rule, studying such branches as they or their parents may leem best. There is an absence of all system in their advancement and pro- notion, and, as a consequence, the great majority of the pupils are in books beyond their comprehension. The desire of children to be in the highest classes and books results in too rapid advancement. The majority of pupils trying to read in the fourth reader, ought to be in the second. This folly also results in the use of "higher" arithmetics and "advanced" geographies, which have no place in country schools. This evil is lamented by all intelli- gent teachers, but few are able, alone and unaided, to correct it. What is needed is some systematic classification. We hope that this subject will soon receive the attention it deserves.

THE COEDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

The coëducation of the sexes has become one of the live questions, and the arguments *pro* and *con* are numerous and various. One of the arguments against coëducation is based on the difference between the male and the female mind. It is affirmed that the minds of men and women differ, and it is inferred that this difference necessarily demands a difference of education. Is this inference a necessary consequence of the fact affirmed? Let us see. The physical organization of the two sexes is diverse. Does it follow that they require a diversity of food? Boys and girls sit at the same table, eat the same kinds of food, and breathe the same air, and their bodies are equally well nourished and strengthened. The mere fact of mental diversity no more *necessitates* a diversity of education, than physical diversity necessitates a diversity of food and air. What must be shown is, that the mental difference of the two sexes is such as to *necessitate* a difference of education, and this necessity must be proved; it can not be inferred. It is not axiomatic. The fact that there is sex in the mind does not necessitate sex in courses of study and instruction.

Equally defective is the argument against coëducation based on diversity of pursuit and mission. It is affirmed that the sphere of action of men and women as classes is diverse, and it is inferred that they consequently require a different preparation, and hence a different education. Are these inferences necessary consequences? Why may not diverse minds derive a diversity of preparation from the *same* course of education? Almost every family is an illustration of the fact, that different persons receive different influences and advantages from the same surroundings and circumstances. The oak and the elm grow in the same soil. The same is true in education. The two sexes derive a diversity of preparation from a like course of study, each eliminating and appropriating according to its own law and its own life's needs and duties. This argument is eminently absurd when applied to elementary and general education. The fact that a boy is to do a man's work in life and a girl a woman's work hardly proves that they should not study arithmetic, geography, and geometry together. When applied to special or professional education, the argument *may* have weight. Moreover, the difference in man's and woman's sphere of action *may* require a difference of education, but this is precisely the fact to be established.

The argument against coëducation based on the difference in the physical strength and endurance of men and women is more logical. If it be a fact that women, as a class, have not the necessary physical stamina to endure a course of education as thorough and extensive as men, then it follows that women, as a class, must receive an education less thorough and extensive than men, as a class, are *capable* of receiving. But it does not follow that the education of women should be less thorough than that which men *are* receiving; nor does it follow that women who are physically capable of competing with men in the highest culture, should be denied the privilege. But where is the average limit of woman's physical capacity in education? So far as our common schools, high schools, academies, and normal schools are concerned, this

limit has not been ascertained. In these grades of study she does her work as easily as her brother, and equally well, though not in precisely like manner. If her inferior physical strength practically limits her educational progress, such limitation must be found in the college or university course, and this fact can only be settled by experience. It does not fall within the scope of logic.

It will be noticed that we do not deny the facts which form the premises of this triple argument against the coëducation of the sexes. We admit that the intellectual, moral, and physical natures of men and women are not precisely identical, and this difference may be sufficiently marked to justify some diversity in their higher education. While we would give a daughter an education every whit as thorough and complete as a son, we are not sure that we would have their education in every respect precisely the same. The diversity would not, however, be sufficiently great to necessitate their attending separate schools. Whether all our colleges and professional schools should be opened to men and women alike, we are not prepared to decide. We would like to see enough of them so opened to afford the women of the country the highest educational advantages; and yet could our word do it, we would, in addition to the Oberlins and Michigan Universities for both sexes, endow Harvards and Yales for women. We feel sure that such institutions would be attended by many more women than the mixed colleges. Experience indicates that but few women comparatively wish to take a regular college course. Oberlin and a few other colleges have for years welcomed women to their classes, but very few have availed themselves of the advantages offered; meanwhile, Vassar and other higher seminaries for women have been well attended. There seems, at least, to be little danger that the opening of college doors to women would over-crowd college classes. A few girls, possessing as a class superior abilities, would be added to the class rolls. What will be true in the future when woman's pursuits and mission are enlarged, we can not say.

We intended to notice the logic of several of the current arguments in favor of coëducation, but a want of space forbids. Suffice it to say, that the *non sequiturs* are not all on one side. The logic that can jump from the fact that boys and girls are brought up together in the family, to the conclusion that the sexes should be similarly associated in boarding schools, will not pay puncturing. It is sufficient to say that there is not a higher institution in the country that adopts or can adopt the unrestricted freedom and social community of the family. This sort of talk is, however, a good deal better than the clap-trap which denounces colleges for men as "relics of barbarism." Such a performance requires neither brains nor sense.

The truth is the universal coëducation of the sexes is, to some extent at least, a question of moral elevation and enlightenment. There are evident advantages in bringing together young men and women of high moral character and refinement in the same institution, and even under the same roof, but such an arrangement would hardly do in Peru or Mexico, since the essential condition would be wanting. We are not sure that it would work well in *all* the institutions of this country. The arrangement requires an all controlling and vitalizing moral and christian influence, and where this is wanting coëdu-

cation, involving co-boarding, is a doubtful good—at least there are two sides to the question. We would give every woman the opportunity to acquire the highest and best education possible, and leave experience to settle the rest.

MEETING OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The next annual meeting of the National Educational Association will be held in the City of Boston, Mass., on the 6th, 7th, and 8th days of August, 1872. The forenoon and evening of each day will be occupied by the General Association, and the afternoon of each day by the four Departments. The exercises will be held in the Lowell Institute Hall and the Hall of the Institute of Technology.

General Association.

1. Methods of Moral Instruction in Public Schools, by Dr. A. D. Mayo, Cincinnati, O.

2. The Co-Education of the Sexes in Higher Institutions.

[President White, of Cornell University, will present this topic. if other duties permit him to attend the meeting.]

3. Compulsory School Attendance, by Newton Bateman, State Supt. Pub. Instruction, Ill.

Discussion to be opened by J. P. Wickersham, State Supt. Com. Schools, Pa.

4. The Examining and Certificating of Teachers, by John Swett, Ass't Supt. Schools, San Francisco, Cal.

5. System of Normal Training Schools best Adapted to the Wants of Our People—Report by Wm. F. Phelps, Minn., Ch'n of Com.

6. The Educational Lessons of Statistics, by Hon. John Eaton, Jr., National Commissioner of Education.

7. Drawing in the Public School, by Walter Smith, State Director of Art Education, Mass.

8. Comparison in Education, by John D. Philbrick, Supt. Pub. Schools, Boston.

Elementary Department.

Miss D. A. Lathrop, Cincinnati, O., President.

1. Objective Teaching—Its Scope and Limit, by N. A. Calkins, Ass't Supt. Schools, New York City.

Discussion to be opened by Miss Jennie Stickney, Boston, Mass.

2. English Grammar in Elementary Schools, by M. A. Newell, Principal of State Normal School, Baltimore, Md.

3. Instruction in Natural Science in Elementary Schools. ————————.

4. Adaptation of Froebel's Educational Ideas to American Institutions, by W. N. Hailman, Louisville, Ky.

Normal Department.

C. C. Rounds, Farmington, Me., President.

1. The Proper Work of the Normal School, by J. C. Greenough, Principal State Normal School, Rhode Island.

2. Professional Training in Normal Schools, by T. W. Harvey, State School Commissioner, Ohio.

3. The Normal Institute, by A. D. Williams, Principal State Normal School, Nebraska.

4. Normal Work among the Freedmen, by S. C. Armstrong, Hampton, Va.

5. Model Schools—Their Uses and their Relation to Normal Training.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

John Hancock, Cincinnati, O., President.

1. The Extent, Methods, and Value of Supervision in a System of Schools, by H. F. Harrington, Supt. Schools, New Bedford, Mass.

Discussion to be opened by J. L. Pickard, Supt. Schools, Chicago, Ill.

2. The Early Withdrawal of Pupils from School—Its Causes and Remedies, by W. T. Harris, Supt. Schools, St. Louis.

Discussion to be opened by A. P. Stone, Principal of High School, Portland, Me.

3. Basis of Percentages of School Attendance—Report of Committee.

4. Public Instruction in the South, by Joseph Hodgson, State Supt. Public Instruction, Alabama.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

D. A. Wallace, Monmouth College, Ill., President.

1. College Degrees—Report of Committee, Pres. D. A. Wallace, Chairman.

2. Greek and Latin Pronunciation—Report of Committee, Prof. H. M. Tyler, of Knox College, Ill., Chairman.

3. The Method of Teaching Physics by Laboratory Practice and Objectively, by Prof. Ed. C. Pickering, of Boston.

4. Modern Languages—Their Place in the College, College Preparatory, and Scientific Preparatory Courses, by Pres. J. B. Angell, of Michigan University.

5. How to Teach English in the High School, by Prof. F. A. March, of Lafayette College, Pa.

6. General Education as a Basis of Professional Training, by Prof. John S. Hart, of Princeton College, N. J.

The daily programme will be so arranged as to afford time for the thorough discussion of the topics of the greatest interest and importance, and each discussion will be opened by a person selected for the purpose. All who may be willing to participate in these discussions, are requested to come prepared to express well-matured opinions in the fewest possible words.

Considerable difficulty has been experienced in making satisfactory railroad arrangements, but it is expected that at least two of the through lines from the West will agree to sell round-trip tickets at reduced rates. The arrangements will be announced as soon as completed. The local committee reports that nine good hotels agree to entertain guests at reduced rates—varying from $1.50 to $3.50 a day.

S. H. WHITE, *Secretary.* E. E. WHITE, *President.*

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—— THE annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association of West Virginia will be held at Fairmont, June 25th, 26th, 27th, and 28th. Prof. Robert Kidd, of Indiana, and Prof. F. A. Allen, of Pennsylvania, are expected to be present, and perhaps Dr. Sears. President Pendleton, of Bethany College, and President Martin, of West Virginia University, and other distinguished teachers of the State will be present. A large and profitable meeting is anticipated.

—— THE next meeting of the State Teachers' Association of Kentucky will be held at Frankfort, August 12th to 16th. We notice that Dr. J. B. Reynolds, Principal of one of the largest Louisville schools, formerly connected with the Cincinnati schools, is to give a lecture on the "Geology of Kentucky", a subject which he is competent to make very interesting. Hon. H. A. M. Henderson is President of the Association.

—— Dr. Mark Hopkins has resigned the presidency of Williams College, and Dr. Paul A. Chadbourne, late Chancellor of the Universitiy of Wisconsin, has been elected his successor. Dr. Hopkins was the senior college president in the United States.——Dr. A. R. Benton, late President of Alliance College, Ohio, is Chancellor of the University of Nebraska.——Dr. Thos. C. Upham, for forty years professor in Bowdoin College, Me., and author of a well-known work on mental philosophy, died recently.——Rev. S. H. McCollester, of Nashua, N. H., has been elected President of Buchtel College, Akron, O., and Prof. N. White, of Vermont, has been appointed to the chair of Ancient Languages in the same institution.——Prof. Arthur L. Coleman, of the University of Virginia recently elected to the Greek chair in Miami University, was run over by the cars and killed while attempting to hand a letter, accepting the position, to the mail agent.

OHIO.—The Senate postponed the school bill to the next session. The House covered itself with glory by twice refusing to increase the salary of the School Commissioner—once to $3,000 and once to $2,500. What better shows an exalted appreciation of education than the keeping of the head of the school system on a salary of $2,000, while the Railroad Commissioner and the Insurance Commissioner are each voted a salary of $3,000!

PAINESVILLE.—The public schools of this beautiful, thoroughly Western Reserve town have been superintended by Miss A. M. Hawley since Mr. Harvey assumed the duties of the office of State Commissioner of Common Schools. Miss Hawley was formerly lady principal of the High School Department, and had won an enviable reputation as a thorough, successful, enthusiastic teacher. Under her management, the schools are as deservedly popular as they have been for several years past. The High School is furnished with valuable chemical and philosophical apparatus, and a fine collection of geological specimens. Almost every needful appliance for successful instruction has been procured for the lower departments. The board of education seem determined to make their schools second to none in the State—and it is gratifying to learn that the people of the town sustain them in their laudable efforts.

SOURI.—The report for 1871 gives the number of children of school age 4,443, of whom 37,173 are colored. The attendance during 1871 was 73—an increase of 49,597 over 1870, being, however, but 52 per cent. of hole school population. The number of schools was 6,942—an increase 24 over the previous pear. The number of teachers 8,816—an increase 50, marking a very rapid advance. The average wages of teachers per was $35, and the average school term 4½ months, making the average e of the teachers $157.50 per annum—a sum not very prophetic of hing as a profession." To reach this result, the rate of taxation was 17 on the dollar. In many respects the report marks progress. One of its st features, however, is the fact that, of 37,173 colored children, only are reported as attending school in 212 schools. More than 30,000 are ng up into full citizenship without even the rudiments of an education. eport asserts that serious difficulties are met with by the colored people uring for their children the schooling they desire; and it recommends the county superintendent be required to secure for them equal advan- with those furnished to white children." It is obvious that the school of the State, by reason of excessive tinkering, are very uncertain, and thorough revision. Much of the money levied for school purposes is ab- d in commissions—"the county clerk, the collector, and the township all receive their commissions." The vicious system of paying the county intendent a *per diem*, is justly condemned, and the recommendation to employ the whole time of competent men, and pay them accordingly.

ODE ISLAND, the most compact, and we might infer the most manageble, the States, shows some curious and suggestive facts in its annual re- "The general condition of the cause of public education in the State is ed to be encouraging and steadily improving"; and yet the alarming s brought out clearly that the proportion of illiteracy in the State is rap- n the increase. In 1860 the illiterates over ten years of age were of ican birth, 1,202; of foreign birth, 4,910—total, 6,112. In 1870, they of American birth, 4,444; of foreign, 17,477—total, 21,901. Of these 6 were over 21 years of age, out of a total population of 217,353. Much s is due undoubtedly to large foreign immigration; but the figures show he proportion of illiteracy in the native born is rapidly increasing,—the ase being, probably, largely among the children of foreigners. The em ent of children of school age in the manufactories of the State has, un- edly, much to do in bringing about the result. The number of children en five and fifteen is 38,788. The number enrolled in the public schools 364, with an average attendance of 22,444. The per cent. of average lance on total school population is 50. With a liberal estimate for at- nce on schools of every kind, it is shown that one child in every ten, en the ages of five and fifteen, is not under any instruction;—an evil , it is clearly shown, does not proceed from any want of educational ies.

GINIA.—The report of W. H. Ruffner, Superintendent of Public Instruc- for the year ending August 31, 1871, is an instructive document. The

system is yet in its infancy—this being the first report. Of course but little in the way of accurate statistics is possible; but the tone of earnest enthusiasm and hopefulness is eminently encouraging. It may, perhaps, be necessary in the present state of things in Virginia, that the county superintendents and district school trustees should be appointed by the board of education; but the experience of other States shows that it is wisest and best in the end to give the choice of trustees or directors to the people of the communities who are to be affected by their action. The appointments of the board are about 1,400 in number. Many embarrassments have arisen from the irregularity in the supply of state money. "In more than one-fourth, perhaps in one-half, the counties of the State, schools have been opened, or are on the point of being opened by means of private subscription." "Before the end of the scholastic year, 1871, the number of schools had increased to more than 2,900, with about 130,000 pupils, and more than 3,000 teachers"—a result certainly very gratifying and full of promise. "The sudden multiplication of schools, beyond anything ever known before", has created a demand for good teachers beyond the supply, leading, in some counties, to a lowering of the standard of qualfication. The Superintendent significantly remarks that the schools have been "better than could have been expected for an average pay to teachers of thirty dollars a month." The reverses of the war have brought into the schools a large number of accomplished teachers, especially of women. The want of normal instruction and of graded schools, with better school houses and school furniture, is greatly felt; but these will come in due time. Difficulty has been found in providing qualified teachers for the colored schools; but we are assured that "juster views concerning the honorable character of the work of educating the colored people, are becoming more prevalent every day. Many of the teachers of colored schools during the past year, were persons of the highest social standing." The total number ot pupils reported as enrolled in all the schools, public and private, and of all grades, is 157,841; of these 39,000 were colored. The aggregate amount paid for teaching in the public schools of the State was about $450,000, of which $345,517 was from the treasury of the State. The number of schools yet needed is given as 1,880, and the annual cost of instruction, assuming $30 per month as the average pay, and five months as the average school year, is assumed to be $720,000. It is certainly a matter of surprise and gratulation, that five-eights of this sum have been reached the first year. The report discusses, in a very fair and hopeful spirit, the question of the negro race, and shows conclusively the duty and the interest of the State to elevate it by means of education. We shall look with great interest and sympathy, year by year, for the evidence furnished by her school reports of the growth in true greatness of the Old Dominion.

CORRESPONDENCE AND QUERIES.

MR. EDITOR: It is not easy to give a brief answer to the question, How does the sun shine upon the north side of a house in places without the tropics? A "good mode of explaining it" was asked by "M." in your last number, and I venture to offer the following as such: Stick a pin into a globe, pointing towards the centre at the given latitude. Turn the globe upon its axis, and the

pin will describe a portion of the internal surface of a cone, which surface rep resents the north side of the house in all its possible positions during one day. If the pin be placed upon the equator, the conical surface becomes a plane, and, *were the earth transparent*, the sun would shine upon the northern surface during the entire twenty-four hours of the day, provided, of course, that the time is somewhere between the vernal and autumnal equinoxes. Removing the pin gradually toward the pole, this will continue to be the case until a latitude equal to the sun's declination at that time is reached, at which point the sun begins to shine for an instant upon the south side. Carrying the pin on towards the north pole—*the earth being supposed to be transparent all the time*—it is evident that the sun will shine less on the north and more on the south side, but the time of shining on the north side will be greatest all of the way up to the pole. On account of the opacity of the earth, however, we have night during a part of the twenty-four hours, but, during this time, *always less than half.* It is clear, then, that, if the sun is shining upon a house more than twelve hours of the twenty-four, and shines upon the south side less than twelve hours, it *must shine upon the north side the rest of the time.* The problem is made exceedingly clear by making a paper cone of an angle to correspond to the latitude of the place, and then inclining its axis, which is the axis of the imaginary earth, toward the sun, or some artificial light. The inside of the cone is the north side of the house in its various positions, and the outside is the south. It is at once seen how a body on the north side is illuminated more than half of the time, and a body on the south side less than half.

T. C. M.

MR. EDITOR: To the questions by "F.", in MONTHLY No. 5, I will say:

1. Neither would be numeration, as I understand the term. Writing "five hundred in figures", I would consider notation.

2. Multiplication consists of successive additions. I never saw it termed repetition before, nor can it be properly.

3. When the multiplier consists of one or more units, then the other number taken as many *times* as there are units in the multiplier; and when the multiplier is less than a unit, the multiplicand is taken such a part of a *time* as the fractional mutiplier indicates.

4. A Spartan king said: "Teach boys what they will practice when they become men." I do not see why this would not be applicable to the *Multiplication Table.* There may be an objection in teaching from books, as it is generally expressed differently in them, but with charts and frames this would be obviated.

5. The operation of getting the result in both cases is undoubtedly the same. In the example $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$, we understand a *part* of the second term is taken. In the other, $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{4}$, we *decrease* the first term.

In reply to "K", I would say: Put a *cardinal* adjective after the noun and an *ordinal* before it. This is not observed in parsing, yet I think it applicable.

In regard to *times* and *time*, one note in Brown's grammar, under *Rule* 4 or *fourth Rule*, says: "When the adjective is necessarily singular or plural, the noun should be made so too."

I think "2 + 3 *is* 5", "7 — 4 *is* 3."

WM. L. ASHTON.

BOOK NOTICES.

A GRAMMAR OF THE GREEK LANGUAGE. For the Use of Schools and Colleges.
A COMPENDIOUS GRAMMAR OF THE GREEK LANGUAGE.
Both by Prof. ALPHEUS CROSBY. New York and Chicago: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

The first of the above works is Crosby's Greek Grammar revised and greatly improved. Among the improvements which first attract the attention, is the constant comparison of the Latin and Greek, constituting a peculiar and valuable feature of the work. Another very great improvement is the catalogue of irregular verbs arranged in an alphabetical list. The value of this list, with its references, the marking of the dialectic, late and rare forms, and the distinguishing, by larger type, of the tenses commonly cited in parsing, can not be overestimated. The tables are in a more compact and attractive form, particles have received more attention, a chapter on the arrangement of the Greek sentence is added, which was certainly demanded from the greater attention now given to Greek composition. Another change, acceptable both to teacher and students, is the translation, to a much greater extent, of illustrative examples. These are some of the more noticeable improvements, but those who are familiar with the old edition will see much new matter and many other happy changes. The work before revised had, for many years, been regarded as a standard, and, in its present accurate and attractive form, it will retain its former high position as a complete grammar of the Greek language, and will have a much greater popularity.

Whatever can be said of the "Grammar" can be said of the "Compendious" or middle grammar, so far as it goes. In his preface, the author says that they are really one and the same work, *unum et idem*, except that the screw of compression, which had been before so severely applied, has here received a few more turns. The tables are exactly the same, and the other parts are so arranged that the two editions can be used together in the same class without much inconvenience. It will make a *convenient* text-book for beginners, but we shall always recommend the grammar.

A. R.

ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. By JOSEPH WILSON, A.M. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro.
NORMAL ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. By EDWARD BROOKS, A.M. Philadelphia: Sower, Potts & Co.

A new text-book is sometimes demanded. The demand may result from a desire for improved method or new and improved matter. A new text-book should, therefore, excel in either the one or the other of these important requisites. These two new claimants upon popular favor do not seem to be remarkable in either of these respects. Both begin with the questionable introduction to algebra through the medium of simple equations. The range of subjects is nearly the same in both. It is difficult to understand whether each is intended for a "first book", or an "only book" in algebra. Presuming the latter, many important subjects are omitted; more from the first named than from the last. Both have, of course, commendable features. The first (Wilson's) is worthy of praise for an excellent numerical as well as algebraic drill in the use of the ordinary signs of operation, the importance of which all teachers of mathematics appreciate. Throughout the whole book, thorns in the path of the student are too few. He never will make a hardy algebraist, who fights no more vigorous battles than are required of him in this book. In the other volume, this same fault exists, though not to nearly so great an extent. This

also contains some very valuable methods in the presentation of certain subjects. Some of these, thought to be new, have been published for ten years in other treatises, which are, however, not very widely known, and this volume will probably do a good service by bringing them into more general notice. Either of these books would serve a good purpose in a course of study in which the "severer studies" do not take a prominent place. T. C. M.

ELEMENTARY MANUAL OF CHEMISTRY. Abridged from Eliot & Storer's Manual. By WM. RIPLEY NICHOLS. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

Some time ago attention was called in this journal to the excellent manual of which this is an abridgment. As stated in the preface, this is, however, not simply an abridgment, but a shorter and easier, yet a more comprehensive manual than the original one. It is more comprehensive, because, while the original is only a manual of inorganic chemistry, in this the treatment of the carbon compounds is expanded and made to include most of the facts and theories which in most text-books are included under what is called organic chemistry. This, in an elementary treatise, seems to be an excellent arrangement. Organic chemistry is the chemistry of the carbon compounds, and the discussion of its more elementary principles in connection with that element, at least insures their presentation to the class, which, as a result of the common arrangement, is frequently neglected. All of the admirable features of the original are to be found in this book. The descriptions of the experiments are concise and clear, and, on account of its better adaptation, this volume will undoubtedly be more popular as a text-book in high schools and academies.
T. C. M.

A SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By W. H. VENABLE, of the Chickering Classical and Scientific Institute. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. 12mo., pp. 247.

In this excellent little manual, a chronological order of arrangement is followed. Associated events are grouped together, and the usual arbitrary division into periods and eras is wisely discarded. This order of arrangement will receive the approval of thousands that have vainly attempted to interest pupils in historical studies while using text-books crammed with facts and dates, arranged without reference to chronological order and sequence. References to the best writers on American history, and to the most interesting literary productions illustrative of American life, are made in foot notes. The teacher that employs the method of instruction thus indicated, and to which special attention is called, can not fail to succeed in creating a taste for instructive reading far more valuable to any pupil than the ability to give date and circumstance for all the important events of authentic history. The progressive development of our country is presented in a series of elegant, carefully prepared maps, in the systematic study of which the student is aided by map questions. The text is also illustrated by smaller maps of such localities as possess more than ordinary historic interest.

We have spent many pleasant hours in the examination of this model compend of American history. If it does not prove to be a popular text-book, attractive and suggestive to the student as well as interesting to the general reader, we shall be much disappointed.

NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW. April, 1872. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

This old standard quarterly loses none of its vigor by age. This number is the two hundred and thirty-fifth, and contains discussions of several subjects of the highest interest to the thoughtful men of our time. The first article is on the German mission of Count Benedetti by Prof. C. K. Adams. This mission extended over a term of years, ending with the recent war between France and Prussia. Benedetti

evidently well represented his master, the Emperor Napoleon, and showed perhaps more than the usual duplicity of the average diplomatist. He was evidently no match for the great Bismarck: In the capture of some official papers by the German army in France, Bismarck has been able to show that some of the statements of Benedetti in regard to his course are utterly false. The article is well worth reading. Article second is by Prof. W. D. Whitney,—a review of Steinthal on the Origin of Language. It is clear and able, and somewhat severe. The third article is a long one on the International Workingmen's Association; its Origin, Doctrines, and Ethics, by E. Gryzanovski. It presents a large number of very important facts, which will go to make up the history of the struggles and hopes and mistakes of those engaged in the great labor revolution. Article fourth is on the Law of Maratime Warfare, as it effects the Belligerents, by John Norton Pomeroy. The discussions in this article are pertinent to the questions now agitating the American mind. The book notices in this number are excellent. The notice of Forster's Life of Dickens is spicy, and, to and American reader, both Dickens and his biographer appear to have some absurd weaknesses.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE SCIENCE OF WEALTH. By Amasa Walker, LL.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.

PRIMARY ARITHMETIC. By Shelton P. Sanford, A.M. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.

THE UNITED STATES READER. By John J. Anderson, A.M. New York: Clark & Maynard. 1872.

THE KINDERGARTEN. By Adolf Douai. New York: E. Steiger. 1871.

THE NORMAL DEBATER. By O. P. Kinsey. Cincinnati: J. Holbrook & Co. 1872.

FIRST LESSONS IN OUR COUNTRY'S HISTORY. By William Swinton, A.M. New York & Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1872.

SWINTON'S WORD-ANALYSIS. By William Swinton, A.M. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1872.

FIRST LESSONS IN LANGUAGE AND DRAWING. By J. Russell Webb. Chicago: A. H. Andrews & Co.

THE NEW AMERICAN PRONOUNCING SPELLER. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. By John Brocklesby, A.M. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1872.

ELEMENTARY DRAWING-BOOK. By John Y. Chapman, N. A. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

SCHOOL REPORTS.

Annual School Report of Kansas, 1871. H. D. McCarty, Supt. of Pub. Instruction.

Annual School Report of Maine, 1871. Warren Johnson, State Supt.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of St. Louis, Mo. W. T. Harris, Supt.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of New Bedford, Mass. H. F. Harrington, Supt.

Semi-Annual Report of the Schools of Burlington, Iowa, W. M. Bryant, Supt.

Report of the General Agent of the Mass. Board, 1872.

Annual Report of the New York Institution for the Education of the Blind, 1872 A. D. Lord, Supt.

THE HERALD OF HEALTH AND JOURNAL OF PHYSICAL CULTURE. $2.00 a year. Furnished to teachers at $1 00. M. L. Holbrook, M.D., Editor.

Dr. Dio Lewis says: "The Herald of Health delights us. The friends of physiological christianity must make it in circulation what you have it in scope and spirit, Cosmopolitan."

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THE

NATIONAL TEACHER:

A MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

Vol. II. JULY, 1872. No. 7.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES.

No. 1.—Teaching a Science and an Art.

Teaching is a science and an art. This is the view now entertained by a large number of educators. Is it correct? Are the claims of teaching to be regarded as a science and an art well founded? To determine this question, we must first have a clear idea of the nature of science and art, and then see if teaching corresponds with this idea.

First, then, what is science? Many different definitions have been given; but it is difficult to find one that is entirely satisfactory. "Science is knowledge systematized." This is an old and popular definition, and is true as far as it goes. Its completeness depends upon the signification of the term knowledge. Knowledge may consist of mere facts, and with this meaning of the term the definition is entirely inadequate. Knowledge may consist of facts, truths, laws, causes, and principles, and in this sense the definition is not particularly objectionable. Spencer defines science as "*quantitative provision.*" This definition, like much written by this brilliant author, glitters with thought and rhetoric, but is inadequate when applied to the entire domain of science. Perhaps as near an approach to a perfect definition as can be made is the following: *Science is a collection of facts or truths reduced to a system, and bound together by laws and principles into an organic unity.*

The sciences are of two general classes: those which begin in

things, and those which begin in *ideas*. The physical sciences begin in things—in facts and phenomena—and rise to systems of classification and to the laws and causes of things. Botany begins in the observation of plants, and proceeds to a complete classification of the vegetable world according to the laws of organic structure. Zoölogy and mineralogy have a similar origin and development. Natural philosophy begins with the phenomena of the material world, and investigates their causes and the laws which control them. The stone falls;—what is the cause of the fall and what is the law of the falling? To answer these and similar questions is the object of natural philosophy.

The metaphysical sciences begin in the primary ideas and truths of the reason, and are developed by a process of reasoning in which the truths contained in the primary ideas are unfolded. Thus, in geometry we have the primary ideas contained in the definitions and the primary truths set forth in the axioms, and, by means of comparison, we unfold in logical order the other truths depending upon them. We thus see that science is based upon knowledge; that this knowledge must be classified before it becomes scientific; and that science also embraces a system of laws and principles.

Is teaching a science according to this conception of the nature of science? Let us see. *First*, there is certainly a great deal known about teaching. Men who have devoted their time to the study of the subject, will deliver long lectures upon it, interesting and practical in their character. Many excellent volumes have been written containing much useful information relative to the theory and practice of teaching. We have, therefore, in teaching, knowledge, the foundation of a science.

Second, this knowledge will admit of classification and logical statement. Those who have studied the subject in its relations can give us a classification of it as complete and logical as can be presented in many of the other sciences. It is true it will not admit of being classified into genera and species, as in natural history, but its subject-matter can be arranged as systematically as that of natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, etc. It is true that no one system of classification in detail has been agreed upon, but this is no objection to its scientific character; for neither do all writers give precisely the same methods of classification in psychology, ethics, logic, political economy, etc. If the lack of uniformity of method in these latter sciences is not made an objection to their scientific character, neither should it

be in teaching. Even in arithmetic and geometry all authors do not follow the same order of arrangement or present precisely the same division of the subject.

It is claimed, however, that there are certain general principles in which all the various classifications agree. That teaching embraces fundamentally two distinct branches, the *development of powers* and the *imparting of knowledge*, is as generally admitted as that geometry begins with definitions and axioms. These two departments are now generally known as *methods of culture* and *methods of instruction*. The fundamental classifications under methods of culture are as definite as the classification of the powers of the mind of which it treats. The fundamental classifications under methods of instruction are based upon the nature of the sciences which are to be taught, and are consequently as complete as the classification of the sciences themselves. It must, therefore, be admitted that teaching embraces "knowledge systematized", and consequently meets the second requirement of a science.

Third, the subject of teaching embraces principles which are fundamental and unchangeable in their nature. That there ought to be such principles is evident *a priori*. One branch of education treats of the nature of man, and how to develop that nature. Now it is evident that there must be certain laws by which this nature may be developed. In the vegetable world there are laws of growth by which a seed is developed into a tree, and a man is as perfect a product as a plant. Mineralogy explains to us the beautiful laws by which crystals are formed; and a mental power is surely no more chaotic in its nature than a mineral. If there are certain laws of structure and development in the world of matter, is it not absurd to deny or doubt the existence of such laws in the world of mind? In imparting a knowledge of the branches, it is clear that there is a certain order in which instruction should be given, and a correct method to be followed, and this order and method stated will give rise to principles of instruction. It is maintained, therefore, notwithstanding the ridicule with which the claim has been assailed, that there is a possibility of ascertaining and stating some general principles of education.

It is also true that many of these principles have been investigated and expressed in language, and that they are as definite and general in their character as the principles of the physical sciences. Among these I may name the following:

Education implies a being to be educated, and knowledge to be used in educating him.

Education embraces both the culture of the powers of man and the imparting of knowledge to the mind.

The methods of cultivating man must be conditioned by the nature of man.

The methods of imparting knowledge must depend upon the nature of man and the nature of the knowledge to be taught.

Each faculty of the mind is developed by appropriate exercise.

The powers of perception and memory are developed before the power of abstract thought.

In primary instruction the concrete should precede the abstract.

Primary instruction should proceed from the known to the unknown.

In elementary instruction facts and phenomena should be taught before laws and causes.

In elementary instruction the inductive method of teaching should be employed; in advanced instruction the deductive method.

In reply to the above argument, it may be said that this merely proves the possibility of teaching becoming a science, and that it has not yet received a scientific development. I answer that it is not claimed that teaching is, at present, a completed science; that we have so perfected our classifications and extended the investigation of principles that it will not be enlarged and improved in the future. Neither is this claimed for psychology, or ethics, or chemistry, or geology, and yet no one questions that these latter branches are sciences. Geology, with all its variations and contradiction of facts and theories is taught as a science, and it is unjust to deny that teaching which is much more definite in its classifications and principles, is not entitled to admission into the domain of the sciences.

When Mr. Page wrote his excellent work upon teaching, it was proper for him to call it the "*Theory and Practice of Teaching*": but it seems to me that the time has come when theory and practice can be elevated into science and art. Theory implies that which is uncertain, undetermined, mere opinion; science means certainty, fixedness—not merely opinion, but certain opinion. Practice means a doing without definite rules to guide us in an operation; art is practice under the control of principle or law. Theory is but a stage of science; practice is but a stepping-stone to art. Theory rises into science and practice into art. We are now passing from the theoretical stage of teaching into the scientific; practice is being guided by the light

of principle and law, and is thus rising into the higher department of art. To-day we are entitled to speak of teaching as a science and an art, believing that it has claims to be regarded as the wisest science and the most excellent art.

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OUR COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM.

No. I.—EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES.

The agencies now generally recognized by educators and by our State Governments as essential to a complete and efficient common school system, may properly be grouped into two classes—Active and Passive.

The active agencies may, with equal propriety, be further arranged into two other classes—Primary and Secondary. Thus classified, the primary group would be composed—

1. Of the mixed or ungraded schools of the rural districts.
2. Of the graded schools of the cities and larger villages.

The secondary group would consist—

3. Of the normal training schools, institutes and other agencies for the professional instruction of teachers and school officers.
4. Of the supervisory and executive officers, including the superintendents of all grades, and the local boards of districts, towns, and cities.
5. In addition to the foregoing some States have, either directly or indirectly, included the *School Journal*, and educational literature generally disseminated through books, reports, and other documents, as adjuncts to the system, employing them for the increase and diffusion of correct information, not only among teachers and school officers, but also among the great body of the people, without whose sympathy and support no measures can effectually stem that tide of ignorance, which is ever the greatest foe of a free government.

Of these active agencies, those of the first group must be conceded to be the Primary Factors of the system, because it is their function to act directly upon the great mass of the children and youth of the country, giving to them their only opportunities of preparation for the duties of life. Through these

agencies at least nineteen-twentieths of the population of the American republic must be reached, if reached at all, by the benign influence of education. Upon their prevalence and efficient action, therefore, the welfare and happiness of the nation pre-eminently depend. It is not enough that these schools *merely exist.* They must be made *unmistakably good*, and they must be multiplied until they reach every neighborhood, every family, and every child in the land, if we expect to realize results commensurate with the pressing needs of the country, and mete out even handed and exact justice to every citizen.

The remaining agencies of the active group are secondary, not in the sense that they are less important or necessary than the former, but because their influence upon the people is of a more indirect character. It is their supreme purpose to act upon and improve the primary agencies. *They have been brought into existence as an indispensable means of perfecting the public schools.* As it is the office of the latter to educate and elevate the people, so it is the mission of the normal schools, teachers' institutes, superintendencies, educational journals, etc., primarily to elevate the common schools. Without these aids the common schools must inevitably languish, if not utterly fail. This is a lesson which cannot be too soon nor too profoundly impressed upon the people.

The *passive agencies*, to which allusion has heretofore been made, may be said to consist—

1. Of the school funds and other pecuniary provisions, including local and general taxation for the support of schools; and

2. The school laws and regulations for the goverment of the system.

The foregoing instrumentalities are, then, such as enlightened experience has sanctioned, and they may be justly assumed as the indispensable elements of a well organized common school system. Armed with these peaceful agencies, we are moving forward to meet the mighty hosts of ignorance and to make education universal among the heterogeneous masses of our population. The success with which this effort is ultimately to be crowned, will depend upon the proper co-ordination and efficient action of the several parts of this machinery, and upon the earnestness and patient determination with which it is supported by the people themselves.

There are few who will have the hardihood to deny the import-

ance of an efficient common school system to the well being of the country; and yet there are many who fail to recognize the grave defects of the system, especially in its *execution*, which go far toward neutralizing the good it accomplishes. Failing in this, they also neglect or refuse to support those *remedial measures* which experience and reason alike have shown to be necessary. Hence, with all the activity which seems to characterize the educational movement of the country, we are confronted with the stubborn fact that ignorance with its baleful consequences is steadily but surely on the increase among us, threatening to sap the very foundations of our prosperity as a nation.

The district school is admitted to be the only reliance for the vast majority of those who inhabit the rural neighborhoods, and these form the great bulk of our population. The graded schools, on the other hand, are the pride and boast of the cities and villages. Their utility is unqestioned. Both, however, have their defects, the former of the gravest character. Both demand the most efficient remedies; and there is a too general indisposition to apply these remedies.

Normal schools, from their earliest introduction, have been compelled to struggle for life against the most determined and bitter opposition. They are still too lamentably inadequate in number and deficient in organization and equipment to meet the demand for skillful teachers. There are but few who really comprehend their vital relations to the general system. Strange as it may seem, there are many who regard them as rivals, and as hostile to the public schools. Teachers' institutes, moreover, are still far from having received the sanction either of universal adoption or of that hearty support so essential to their complete success. Scarcely a session of our legislatures can pass, without divers and sundry attempts to abolish the office of superintendent, or in some way to cripple its usefulness, while most of our educational journals are left to eke out a precarious existence, or perchance to succumb to the pressure of pecuniary necessity.

Now the vital necessities of the hour in this great work of subduing ignorance, are not so much new agencies as a vigorous, persistent, and universal application of those already at hand. If properly administered and heartily sustained by an intelligent, active public sentiment, they are adequate to accomplish their beneficent purposes. But to this end the powers and possibilities of the public school, and especially of the rural district school can and must be fully developed. Hence those agencies

which are designed for its improvement must be better understood, more thoroughly appreciated, and more liberally supported. Every additional appliance which intelligent experience can devise for its upbuilding, must be summoned to its aid. As "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," so is it also the price of those benign institutions upon which liberty alone can rest.

Having thus presented a brief outline of our educational instrumentalities as they actually, although not universally, exist, I propose to suggest in future articles some considerations looking to the elevation and improvement of the district school. Prominent among the topics discussed will be normal or training schools for teachers, since all efforts to improve the character of our education must begin with them. Good schools are impossible without able, skillful teachers. How may this country be supplied with such? This is the great question of the hour. Without them a school system is a shadow without substance, a mere form without power.

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WHAT IS A DUNCE?

It would be a matter of interest to decide who are *dunces*, and to trace statistically the futures of those pupils that teachers call dunces. Every old teacher knows that in the race of life the geniuses and so-called dunces are sometimes well illustrated by the fable of the hare and the tortoise.

It is not, however, the purpose of this article to take up this phase of the subject, but to give a curious etymological chapter in reference to the word *dunce*.

"Some derive it from *Attonitus*, L. others from *dumb*, Eng. *q. d.* dumps, *i. e.* dumbish."—*Bailey's Dictionary, 17th edition*, 175 .

"A word of uncertain etymology, perhaps from *dum*, Dutch stupid."—*Johnson*.

" *S.* *uncertain etymology*."—*Ash*.

Minsheu gave *densus*, thick, as its origin. Skinner, *tonto* [Spanish], stupid; Serenius, *dunser* [Swedish], a heavy-footed man. The following marginal comment was found in Horne Tooke's copy of Johnson's Dictionary: "Perhaps a word of reproach first used by the Thomists, from *Duns* Scotus, their antagonist, but we must first find out when this word began to be used." Todd claims to have made independently the same remark, and makes the following quotations:

"They hate even to death all them that preach the pure worde of God, voied of all the dregges of Dunsse *learning* and

man's traditions."—*Confutation of Nicholas Shaxton*, 1546, sig. F. iii.

From A. Wood, Fasti Oxonienses, 1691, vol. i. col. 673, he quotes: "The cardinal would write that the said Winter should study the *Dunces'* logick questions," meaning, as Todd supposed, the logic questions of John *Dunse*.

Richardson says, "The passages quoted below leave no room to doubt that the word (as severally conjectured by Mr. Tooke and Mr. Todd) was first introduced by the Thomists, or disciples of Thomas Aquinas, in contempt towards their antagonists the Scotists, or disciples of John Scot of *Duns*. *Dunce's* disciples, *Duncemen*, *Dunces*."

He then gives the following quotations:

"'For the first rector of the University of Paris, as I have read somewhere, was Peter Lombard, who first brought the learning called school divinity; and was seconded by John Scot of Duns, who lived in, or near the same time, whom any ingenious reader, not knowing what was the design, would have judged to be two of the most egregious blockheads in the world, so obscure and senseless are their writings.'—*Hobbs. Behemoth.*"

"'Remember ye not how within this xxx. yeares and farre lesse, and yet dureth vnto this day, the old barkyng curres *Dunce's disciples* & lyke draffe called *Scotistes*, the children of darkenesse, raged in euery pulpit agaynst Greke, Latin, and Hebrue.'—*Tyndall. Workes*, p. 278."

"'Here it is open, that the Pelagiãs graunt as much of grace, as my Lord Rochester doth, and all his *Duns-men*, which learneth that a man may haue a good purpose, *bonum studium*, and a good mynde, & a loue to grace, of his own naturall strẽgth.'—*Barnes. Workes*, p. 272."

"'Here is also to be noted, that ye Pelagians, & our *Dunsmẽ* agree all in one, for they both say, that ye grace of God doth helpe mãs good purpose, so that man doth first intende and purpose well.'—*Id. Ib.*"

"'Now would Aristotle deny such speakyng, & a *Duns man* would make xx distinctions.'—*Tyndall. Workes*, p. 88."

"'How think you? is not this a likely answere for a great doctour of diuinitie? for a great *Duns man*? for so great a preacher.'—*Barnes. Workes*, p. 232."

"'Talke altogether of most graue matters, or deeply search out the ground of things, or vse the quiddities of *Dunce*, to set forth Godis misteries: and you shall see the ignorant (I warrant you) either fall asleep or els bid you farewell.'—*Wilson, The Arte of Rhetorique*, p. 201."

"'In school-divinity as able
As he that hight irrefragable
A second Thomas, or at once
To name them all, another *Dunce*.'—*Hudibras*, pt. i. c. I."

"'——Say, you, her instruments, the great
Call'd to this work by dulness, Jove and fate,
You, by whose care, in vain decry'd and curst,
Still *Dunce* the second reigns like Dunce the first;
Say, how the goddess bade Britannia sleep
And poured her spirit o'er the land and deep.'
Pope. The Dunciad, b. i."

Under the word "nick-name" Richardson makes the following quotation:

"'Others auouch, and that more truelie, that he [Johannes Duns Scotus] was born in Downe, an old ancient ciuitie in the north of Ireland, and thereof they ghesse him to be named *Dunensis*, and by contraction *Duns*, which terme is triuiall and common in all schools, that whoso surpasseth others either in cauilling, sophistrie, or subtil philosophie, is forthwith nicke named a *Duns*.'—*Holinshed. Description of Ireland*, c. 1."

Noah Webster, within his etymological brackets, gives, "G. *duns*. Qu. Pers. —, a stupid man." The dash is inserted instead of the Persian characters given by Webster. He also gives the following quotation from "*Southey's Omniana*," vol. i, p. 5:

"*Dunce* is said by Johnson to be a word of uncertain etymology. Sfanihurst explains it. The term *Duns*, from *Scotus*, 'so famous for his subtill quiddities,' he says, 'is so trivial and common in all schools, that whoso surpasseth others either in cavilling, or subtill philosophie, is forthwith nicknamed a *Duns*.' This, he tells us in the margin, is the reason 'why schoolmen are called *Dunses*.' [*Description of Ireland*, p. 2.] The word easily passed into a term of scorn, just as a blockhead is called *Solomon*, a bully *Hector*, and as *Moses* is the vulgar name of contempt for a Jew."

To this Webster appends the remark, "I have little confidence in this explanation."

The last edition of Webster's Dictionary says, "Ger. *duns*, from Joannes *Duns* Scotus, called the *subtle doctor*, who died in 1308." The quotation from Southey is also given, but Webster's remark has been omitted.

The following quotation is from the ninth edition, New York, 1855, of "Trench on the Study of Words," p. 90-2:

"There is a little word not in uncommon use among us, an inquiry into the pedigree of which will lay open to us an important page in the intellectual history of the world. We may all know what a 'dunce' is, but we may not be as well acquainted with the quarter whence the word has been derived. Certain theologians in the middle ages were termed schoolmen; being so called because they were formed in the cloister and cathedral schools which Charlemagne had founded—men not to be lightly spoken of, as now they often are by those who never read a line of their works, and have not a tithe of their wit; who moreover little guess how many of the most familiar words which they employ, or misemploy, have descended to them from these. 'Real,' 'virtual,' 'entity,' 'nonentity,' 'equivocation,' all these, with many more unknown to classical Latin, but which now have become almost necessities, were first coined by the schoolmen, and passing over from them into the language of those more or less interested in their speculations, have gradually filtered through the succeessive strata of society, till now they have reached, some of them, to quite the lowest. At the revival of learning, however, their works fell out of favor; they were not written in classical Latin; the form in which their speculations were thrown was often unattractive; it was mainly in their authority that the Romish church found support for many of its perilled dogmas; on all which accounts, it was considered a mark of intellectual progress and advance to have broken with them and altogether thrown off their yoke. Some, however, still clung to these schoolmen ,and to one in particular, *Duns* Scotus, the great teacher of the Franciscan order; and many times an adherent of the old learning would seek to strengthen his position by an appeal to its great doctor, familiarly called Duns; while the

hers would contemptuously rejoin, 'Oh, you are a *Dunsman*,' or more iefly, 'You are a *Duns*'—or, 'This is a piece of *dunsery;* and inasmuch as e new learning was ever enlisting more and more of the genius and schol-ship of the age on its side, the title became more and more a term of scorn. temember ye not,' says Tyndall, 'how within this thirty years and far less, e old barking curs, *Dunce's* disciples, and like draff called Scotists, the ıildren of darkness, raged in every pulpit against Greek, Latin, and He-ew?' And thus from that long extinct conflict between the old and the ew learning, that strife between the mediæval and the modern theology, we herit the words 'dunce' and 'duncery.' Let us pause here for a moment to ɔnfess that the lot of poor Duns was certainly a hard one, who, whatever ıay have been his merits as a teacher of Christian truth, was certainly one of ıe keenest and most subtle witted of men. He, the 'subtle doctor' by pre-minence, for so his admirers called him, could hardly have anticipated, and s little as any man deserved, that his name should be turned into a by-word xpressive of stupidity and obstinate dullness. This, however, is only one ex-mple of the curious fortune of words."

Worcester's etymological brackets contain simply the quo-ation already made from Richardson. He also gives a portion f the above quotation from Trench, but with variations in the pelling of several words.

The following quotation is from vol. i, p. 246, of Marsh's edi-ion of Wedgwood's Etymology:

"Dunce. From Duns Scotus, the great leader of the schoolmen, called after im *Dunsmen* or *Duncemen;* and as they were violently opposed to classic tudies in the revival of learning, the name of *Dunce* was given to an opposer f learning, or one slow of learning. [Here follows the first quotation from 'yndall as given by Richardson.]

"Perhaps the reference to Duns has coincided with another designation of imilar sound. The Latin grammar which obtained universal acceptance was hat of Donatus, whence a Latin grammar was called a *donat*, and a student a grammar *donatista, donaist, Donatus, Donaist; Donatista* qui studet in ıto libro.—Carp. Fr. *donataire*, a donatory, or *donce*.—Col."

Latham, in his edition of Todd's Johnson's Dictionary, first ;ives the quotation from Tyndall, in which he follows exactly he changes in spelling to the modern style made by Wedgwood n all the words except "yeares", "curres" and "draffe." In-tead of xxx. as given by Richardson, they both give "twenty." Why the change should be made I cannot conjecture, since they ɔoth refer to Richardson for the quotation. After giving the ollowing quotation, he gives those already made from Todd, and he first sentence of the one made from Wedgwood.

"'We have set *Dunce* in Bocardo, and have utterly banished him Oxford or ever, with all his blind glosses. . . . And the second time we came to New College after we had declared your injunctions, we found all the great quad-ant court full of the leaves of *Dunce*, the wind blowing them into every cor-ıer. And there we found one Mr. Greenfield, a gentleman of Buckingham-hire, gathering up part of the same book leaves, as he said, therewith to make ıim sewers or blawnshers to keep the deer within his wood, thereby to have the ıetter cry with his hounds."—*Strype, Ecclesiastical Memoirs*, i. 335. (Craik.)'"

I have been unable to find this quotation in Craik.

The following is part of note 153, pp. 12-3 of Hudibras, Hartford, 1848:

"Johannas Dunscotus was a very learned man, who lived about the thirteenth and beginning of the fourteenth century. The English and Scotch strive which of them shall have the honor of his birth. The English say he was born in Northumberland: the Scots allege he was born at Duns, in the Mers, the neighboring county to Northumberland, and hence was called Dunscotus. Moreri, Buchanan, and other Scotch historians, are of this opinion, and for proof cite his epitaph:

Scotia me genuit, Anglia suscepit,
Gallia edocuit, Germania tenet.

He died at Cologne, November 8, 1308. In the supplement to Dr. Cave's Historia Literaria, he is said to be extraordinary learned in physics, metaphysics, mathematics, and astronomy; that his fame was so great when at Oxford, that 30,000 scholars came thither to hear his lectures; that when at Paris, his arguments [200 in number] and authority carried it for the immaculate conception of the Blessed Virgin; so that they appointed a festival on that account, and would admit no scholars to degrees but such as were of this mind. He was a great opposer of Thomas Aquinas's doctrine; and, for being a very acute logician, was called Doctor Subtilis; which was the reason also that an old punster always called him the Lathy Doctor." (This note is not in Nash's Hudibras.)

For additional references to Duns Scotus, see Encyclopædia Britannica, vol. I, pp. 325, 434, vol. 8, p. 261; Craik's English Literature, vol. I, pp. 163-4; Taine's English Literature, vol. I, pp. 133-4; etc.

"It seems from the Frisian that fools formerly bore a club, with a big but harmless head, of a bag filled with feathers or down, *Fr.* [Frisian] *dünn, dònse*, and the club was called donse or dün-hammer."

"'A dunce,' one with a head as if a bag of feathers."—*Barnes's Tiw, or English Roots and Stems*, p. 226.

On the preceding page Barnes gives, "Dunce, with the mind dunted."

I have now given all the conjectures that I have seen as to the etymology of the word *dunce*. Notwithstanding, the general belief that the word is referable to Duns Scotus, I cannot avoid the belief that this is not the true etymology. The word may be more ancient than the age of Duns Scotus, (1265-1308,) and the historical facts may be accidental coincidences. Indeed in none of the quotations relied on to prove a reference to Duns Scotus, is the word Duns used in the sense that *dunce* is now and may be always has been used.

I cannot refrain from adding one more conjecture in reference to the word *dunce*, namely, that it is allied to the provincial word *dunch*. For illustration of this word I cite the following:

Halliwell in his Dictionary of Archaic and Provincial Words ves as the second meaning of *dunch*:

"(2) Deaf; dull. *Var. dial.* 'Deafe or hard of hearing.' Batan uppon Bartholome, 1582."

Ash has, "Dunch (*adj. obsolete*) Deaf," and quotes Phillips as uthority.

Bailey has, "DUNCH, deaf, O." [old word.]

Francis Grose, in his Provincial Glossary, 1811, has, "*Dunch*, eaf, W." [Western.]

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MANAGEMENT OF TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The management of an institute should in all parts tend to the ull employment of the time in giving and receiving solid inruction, should provide for punctuality and regularity of ttendance, for strict attention to every exercise, and to responibility for having a written memorandum of every lesson. No isturbing influence should be allowed to come in. It should be place of work, not of amusement, and attendance and absence hould mean something. Teachers should feel at the close that here had been no nonsense, and much sensible work that ought o bear good fruit.

I wish to call attention to the difficulty of adapting instruction o the wants of an institute. Here are teachers of all grades; ome well educated, and some very poorly educated; some who re not sufficiently disciplined to profit by any but the most ains-taking class drill; and some, at times at least, as cometent in some directions as the instructors. Little backward ngraded schools are represented, in which nothing beyond the ery beginnings of knowledge are taught, and the large mixed chools of the country in which everything is taught by one eacher, and the graded school. With the loose organization hich alone is possible, with the short time of an institute, with s fluctuating numbers and elements, and the more or less umerous, and more or less inattentive and distracting attendnce of outsiders, it is a very difficult task to arrest and hold atention and give profitable instruction that shall be at the same me attractive. The only thing to be done, is to guage the lesons by the advice of the commissioners as to what grade of inruction will do most for the average school represented in the

institute, and from that digress to the right hand and to the left to give, so far as possible, a portion to each. These two things are to be kept in mind, that principals of schools will gladly second instruction suited to the needs of the lower grades of their schools, and that most good is done by not setting the key too high—by not shooting over the heads of the majority.

Let us look at the spirit, the matter, and the form of instruction at an institute.

In spirit an institute—by which I mean commissioners, instructors and teachers, all as one—should be controlled by a desire not to discharge a legal duty, that is, not simply to be able to report that an institute has been held according to law, but by a desire to make it tell upon the schools of the county. It should be an instructive, an inspiriting, a mutually helpful affair; not to pass the time so as to send in the bills, but to pass the time so as to say at the close, "It is good for us and will be good for our schools that we have been here," should be its temper. All should have the same end in view. Commissioners should let instructors know their peculiar needs and instructors should be willing to adapt themselves with good sense to these needs, and teachers, one and all, should be willing to take hold at once and help carry out the intention judged to be best. The instructor cannot say "I know what I want to do, and that I am going to do"; nor the teachers "We know what we will have, or nothing." The spirit ought to be such that all will say "We are getting every day just what we want." Conciliation and not opposition, a disposition to do and to receive the best that, in the circumstances, can be done, will help much in making the institute what it should be. The right course generally being marked out, those who have charge should be watchful of the temper of an institute, and of the reception which lessons meet. It should be led rather than compelled; at least, the compelling power should not be brought into prominent notice. The instructor must assert himself and claim and hold the respect of teachers, but he must be flexible and adapt himself to existing facts. To go blindly through a course of lessons or lectures, however excellent, because they are prepared and are excellent, is foolish—it gives the impression of obstinacy and of poverty of material; to persist in a manner of instruction which is not adapted to any particular body of teachers is foolish; to refuse to see, or to be blind to see, that the institute is not at all in sympathy with the person or with the quality of his instruc-

ion, is not wise. So is the refusal of a company of teachers to eceive instruction kindly, because it is in matter or in manner ifferent from what had been expected, or different from some- body who was there last year. That spirit is best which is will- ing, not indeed to be quite all things to all men, but to put itself into genuine sympathy with those who are to be influenced. A certain degree of flexibility, a quickness of perception, good sense and tact, should be marks of the instruction given. And if a man sees or feels that he is failing to hit the mark in any direction, he should fit another string to his bow, even in the middle of an exercise, and he need not be afraid of letting the class see him do it.

Again—while instruction should be adapted to immediate, ctual wants, it should also have reference to opening up a roader field of personal study. It should contain at least sug- estions of the boundless regions which lie unexplored all about he student, even in the common studies of every school. The reat curse—I can use no milder term and be honest—the great urse of our learning and our teaching is that it is done on so arrow a foundation. Teachers are content with so limited nowledge, and so contracted views of truth. Their range is too ften bounded by what a license requires; they feel no need of, o impulses toward, a larger and freer intellectual life; think eir "horizon circumscribes the world." Now, without ne- lecting the proper sphere of institute instruction, something ay be done to incite to a love of study—much to stir up the ry bones of laziness and indifference—much to flash at least limpses of wonders and beauties from parts of subjects outside, ut only just outside, the commonest routine of school upon ose which lie within this routine.

The matter of this instruction has been already at least sug- ested. Its chief criterion should be that it is usable in school r ordinary school purposes; the substance, the method of it, nd, in fact, the form of it. Its main value rather will be in that he young teacher will get something from it to carry into and use n his own school, and this without special refinements or special xpurgations, and something more for himself to think about nd to grow upon. Not that it is possible or desirable for a eacher to carry an institute exercise or any exercise bodily into is school; but that it contains an explanation he can adapt to is own uses; a model he can follow; a suggestion how to meet difficulty he can incorporate into his own plan. The more di-

rectly and explicitly points are made for him, the more good he will get from them. Almost any one accustomed to public speaking can put together a series of pleasant incidents or facts into a very pleasing lesson, and get the reputation by its recital of a witty and pleasant fellow. I have heard such, and I have heard teachers say, "I like that; that feeds you; that makes you grow; that makes you feel better." But has it effect on your teaching? Will it lead to better work and larger results in your classes? If so, I say amen and amen! If not, though it may be "a gem of purest ray serene," it is quite out of place. If you want a piece of chalk to make an illustration with on the blackboard, a lump of gold won't answer. If the problem on hand involves the table for long measure, you cannot substitute that of Napier's logarithms. If the difficulty to be met wants a little good sense, backed by a little every day experience, you cannot meet it by looking at it through Lord Rosse's telescope.

The matter then, on one side, should be mainly the matter of ordinary school instruction, accompanied by, spiced with, brief excursions into adjacent regions for the purpose of a thorough, wholesome stirring up of the mind to think and to reach out to that which is before and beyond. Elementary subjects, such as are taught in all schools, should be its staple. Enough of others to incite to a broader culture, to show that such exist, that they are interesting, useful, may be worked in as auxiliaries, but the main work should be with rudiments and methods of teaching rudiments. To do the most good, to benefit the greatest number of persons, there is far more danger of making instruction too high up than too low down. All the subjects of the common school should come in, that the teacher may get some starting points in all. A skillful combination of the substance of a subject and of the method of teaching it, a rapid review of points in order, accompanied by suggestions of method of teaching and practice enough to be sure they are understood, is the best material for institute lessons. Formal methods are very formal, and are apt, as they must be given them, to make only imitators. Some such should be given, but it is better to suggest principles than to form exact moulds for others to run themselves into.

Not all the lessons, however, should be upon subjects of study. Half the field of institute work is outside of this. The organization of schools, the management of classes, some of the fundamental data of teaching as a science, the common difficulties of school work, and the common relations between teacher and

pupil, and teacher and people, should have consideration. All that group of subjects which might be put together under the general term, school economy, may be made very profitable, if judiciously treated. Advice and suggestions on a multitude of points, both principles and details, may be given with great advantage to all but the oldest and most skillful, if the instructor can put his own experience and early difficulties and mistakes and successes, into the form of caution and counsel and encouragement. These lessons may do much to infuse, to create the right spirit, and may help the beginner over many a slough of despond.

Next, as to the form of the exercises. Shall they be lessons assigned to be prepared? There is no time for that, either for the preparation or the recitation, if one is to get through a subject. Shall they be all in the shape of formal lectures? That would soon become tedious and the reverse of instructive. The only feasible way is to make them a cross between familiar lectures after a scheme given on the board, and lessons by question and answer. Let it be announced at the close of one lesson what topic will be taken up at the next. Let the instructor take up that topic in the form of a rapid review, explaining the principle, eliciting by means of questions the results he desires to reach, and calling on the class for examples or solutions enough to be understood. Let the outline of the lesson be put upon the board and copied into the note-books. Let the questions asked be numerous and varied enough to keep attention, and let his own comments be full enough so that the points of the lesson will be his, rather than those of the class he is instructing. Let him try to make the lesson full of points, rather than to drill on one or two till they are understood fully. Much must of necessity be left to the development of further and personal study. At the close allow time for reasonable questions on the topic of the lesson, and at the beginning of the next call on some one or more to give a brief review. But for pressure of time, it would be profitable to review carefully from the note-books, so that it might be ascertained that the notes taken are the points made. It must all be rapid, earnest, wide-awake, impetuous almost, but clear, methodical, and what Sam. Johnson called conclusive—that is, tending to and making some direct issue; no ragged, loose-ended, disjointed result, but one compact and definite. Every lesson on the part of the instructor should be a model in the manner of conducting such an exercise. He

should use good English, he should stick to his text, he should hold the class firmly to the line of studies he desires, he should check discussions, he should put down interruptions, and should go steadily on and compel others to go steadily on till his point is made and his opinion is before the institute.

The results of an institute may be summed up very briefly. Here have been for ten days the teachers of a county with their commissioners consulting about schools, under the instruction of persons appointed by the State Superintendent. Every hour of the session has been given to some solid lesson and every evening to some sensible discussion of a school subject of a more general character. Every teacher should, if he has at all done his duty, carry away more knowledge of subjects, clearer perception of relations of subjects and their place in the work of education, and the definite results which are to be sought for in each. He should carry away, beside some explanation of special difficulties, some good illustrations to aid his own explanations, some suggestions of methods of teaching, and some worked out in full. He has heard ways and means suggested of organizing and carrying on school from day to day, and of managing the little details of school routine. Beside, he has been urged to seek a larger fund of knowledge and a richer culture for his own sake, to make the most of his opportunities for improvement in every direction. He carries away, further, something of an *esprit de corps;* he has seen and measured himself with others, and is not ashamed to think and to know that he is one of a great company doing the State good service. He goes from the institute to his district, perhaps a secluded, perhaps uninviting one, to begin the work of a term. Now, though he finds that he cannot do just as the lessons suggested, and as looked so sensible at the time, though he must in a measure make this instruction over to meet his special wants, and though he discovers that his own enthusiasm has not been communicated direct from the institute to his school, yet he feels that it ought to bear fruit and that immediately. So he ought to sit down and digest this instruction, think it all over and think it all out, eliminate what he can not use, and complete and arrange what he can use. Following the guide of the principles laid down, he ought to adopt the method based upon them to his own school and to his own use as a teacher. He must do this patiently, thoroughly, honestly, or else he will use what he got just as it was given him, use it for a day or two with no appreciable result, and then drop

back without a further effort into his former way, wear the old ruts deeper and be really a poorer teacher week by week. So that I judge the main value of an institute to consist in setting the teacher himself thoughtfully at work for the improvement of his school with some of the data for the solution of the problem furnished him, and with a motive and an inspiration to do this, born within him, or strengthened by the whole spirit and substance of what he has heard and seen. And so far as he can, the commissioner in his official visits should see that this is done.

In conclusion, teachers' institutes I regard as too important an agency for the improvement of common schools to admit of more than one question, viz: How can they be made to do the utmost good they are capable of doing?

[The above is the concluding portion of an excellent address delivered before the New York State Association of School Commissioners and Superintendents, by Prof. HENRY B. BUCKHAM, Principal of the State Normal School, of Buffalo, N. Y.]

LATIN PRONUNCIATION.

The subject of Latin pronunciation is now engaging much attention among classical scholars both in this country and in England. As a report on this subject will be submitted to the next National Teachers' Association, a little judicious discussion beforehand might well prepare the way for it.

There seems to be a growing disposition upon the part of our best colleges and universities, to abandon the English system of Latin pronunciation. Some have adopted that miserable hybrid, sometimes called the *Continental* method, but which is only a cross between the continental vowel sounds and English consonants. But this has neither national pride nor prejudice for its support, and it is only a concession to the demand for the true pronunciation. It is quite a step, however, toward the Roman pronunciation, and, as such, is to be highly valued.

The Roman system was revised in this country about twenty years ago at the University of Rochester, by Prof. J. F. Richardson, and since that time has been introduced with some unimportant changes into many colleges and universities, among which are Harvard, Cornell, Michigan, and Washington and Lee Universities. The vowel sounds of this system are identical, or

nearly so, with the German vowel sounds. Diphthongs are sounded according to the union of the sounds of the vowels of which they are composed. The consonants which differ most in sound from the same in the English method, are *c*, *g*, *j*, *s* and *t*. *C* and *g* are always given the hard sound, *j* is sounded like *y* in *yonder*, *s* as in *sin*, and *t* as in *till*.

Those who use the system commend it on the ground of simplicity, utility, and euphony. It is easily acquired even by those who have been accustomed to the other methods, and the structure of the language demonstrates its truthfulness.

There are some things in it which excite the ridicule of those who do not reason. The hard sound of *c* and *g* before *æ*, *œ*, *e*, *i* and *y* is a target for their unreason. It is in their opinion the vulnerable point, the tendon of Achilles, and by piercing it with the arrow of ridicule, tipped with sarcasm, they hope to slay the imaginary monster. But while the unthinking ridicule, the system itself is steadily gaining in favor.

No one pretends that the *exact* pronunciation of the Romans can now be obtained, yet the nearest approximation to the ancient method is valuable not only in itself, but also as a basis of uniformity for all nations. Both these arguments have been urged with zeal by the advocates of the system. The various methods in use by the different countries of Europe are uniform only so far as the vowels are concerned. The adoption of the Roman method by the English-speaking people will be a strong inducement to the continental nations to dispense with their conflicting consonant sounds and to adopt the Roman sounds.

But dispensing with the argument for uniformity, the reasons drawn from the structure of the language itself are sufficient to warrant the adoption of the correct system. Decline *musca*, *muscus*, *amicus* and *rogus*, giving *c* and *g* their changing, and then their uniform sounds, and then make a decision as to the better way. Conjugate *lego*, *legere*, and *dico*, *dicere*, and make the same comparison. Compare the present indicative of *scio* and the present subjunctive of *sum*.

Words are distinguished by the *ear*, which in other methods are distinguished by the *eye* only. Instances of this kind are very numerous, and will at once occur to every Latin student. The euphony of the simple sound of *t* will be made clear by the declension of *tristis*, *e*, in both the positive and comparative degree.

The fact that the best universities are adopting the new

system is one of the strongest arguments in its favor, and this has been done in answer to a reasonable demand on the part of students for something approximating, at least, the true pronunciation. The hold which it is getting in England, may be considered strong from the fact that such an eminent scholar as Max Müller is enthusiastic in its favor. The strange pronunciation of Cicero and Cæsar revealed by the Roman method gives conservatives almost a spasm, and were it not for these old Roman heroes, the new system would meet with but little opposition. Is it not just as ridiculous to pronounce Latin as English, as it would be to pronounce French or German according to our tongue?

JOHN W. DOWD.

Chillicothe, Ohio.

GRUMBLING.

Grumblers, though not the most agreeable people, have their uses. Generally without any constructive power of their own, they yet are the indirect cause of a considerable amount of progress, for they spy out with much keenness of vision, and not seldom with much ill-nature, the defects of existing institutions, which defects are afterwards remedied by others. In the teachers' profession is found a large class who not only consider grumbling a privilege but a positive duty. Every teachers' meeting, whether it be a general association or county institute, has its specimen, who unrolling his manuscript of "learned length," proceeds with labored phrase and indignant eloquence to demolish all present schemes of public instruction. Our graded schools, according to his notion, destroy the individuality of their pupils; and he enlarges with a profusion of rhetoric on the supreme wickedness of cramping nature's freedom by the diabolical invention of per cents. He declares all our methods of teaching absolute failures, and uses, with frequent complacency in connection with this declaration, the well-worn epithets "ruts," "routine," "cramming," etc. Like another Rousseau, he beseeches us to return to nature and first principles. What meaning he may attach to this expression he has never risen to explain. Having torn down the old structure and thrown such a quantity of cold water on his audience as to quench every

spark of enthusiasm therein, he sits down to contemplate the barren waste that himself has made. To build up waste places is of course no part of his business.

Now that our system of schools are perfect, or that our methods of instruction are the best that can be devised, not even the most enthusiastic friends of free education will venture to assert; but this eternal fault-finding where no remedy is proposed, becomes tiresome, and is injurious to the best interests of learning. Often it has no basis of facts, and even when it has the relations of these facts are so distorted and the evils so much exaggerated, that the effect produced is that of a palpable falsehood. Is it any wonder then that this constant exhibition by ourselves of the faults of our schools, magnified out of all just proportions, whilst their good qualities are kept in abeyance, should have set others at work in the same line of unfriendly criticism? Some do this because they have no love for the schools and gladly avail themselves of any pretext to deal them a blow; others from the Bohemian pride of saying or writing startling things. The perfectly reckless way in which the latter class deal with facts and figures is often appalling. Give them a statistical table, and they will prove to you in the most logical way that our people have but a few years between them and barbarism. If we may believe them, the more we extend our school system the greater the diffusion of ignorance, and that under the demoralizing influence of that system all originality of thought is being effectually killed out and all our people are settling down to one dead level of dull uniformity. Such extravagant paradoxes may catch the applause of the unthinking, but they must make the judicious grieve. Far be it from us to counsel the concealment of any of the imperfections of our schools, but we do contend that teachers, at least, should expend as much effort in seeking out a remedy for these imperfections, as they do in dragging them before the public. We ought not to forget either that this public school system, whether its faults be few or many, is the corner stone of American institutions, and therefore that he who contributes to bring it into contempt with the people, sins against the republic.

Brethren, let us strive rather to perfect than to destroy, and by our earnest work to establish our school system upon such a solid foundation as shall render the grumbler's an unthankful task.

JOHN HANCOCK.

Editorial Department.

——We adopt this month the plan of placing the names of contributors at he close of their contributions. This will avoid the difficulty of titles, which as often perplexed us, and it will make the opening of contributed articles ess formal. When an article has a sub-head or a serial number, the prefixing f the writer's name gives too many head lines. The affixing of the names of riters makes the headings uniform, whether the articles are contributions or elections, or are in letter form. It also permits writers to affix their initials hen they prefer to do it. The plan has been adopted by many standard and opular periodicals, and we think that our contributors and readers will like t.——Professors Phelps and Brooks each begin in this number a series of apers which will be of great practical value. They stand at the head of two f the most successful normal schools in the country, and each has had a long xperience in the training of teachers. Prof. Brooks is a new contributor and e welcome him to our pages. The time has come for a more earnest and orough discussion of the "ways and means" for the improvement of Amer- an schools, and especially the ungraded schools of country districts.

——There is no subject in which a larger number of our readers are per- nally interested than the management of teachers' institutes. The institute now generally recognized to be the most available agency for the improve- ent of the great majority of teachers, and a rapidly increasing number of achers are annually applying to it for professional assistance. In several of e States, nearly all the teachers employed in the schools attend the annual stitute held in their county. It is evident, therefore, that the manner in ich the teachers' institutes of the country are conducted directly interests achers and school officers, and all friends of school progress. That these stitutes are now conducted in the most efficient manner possible, no one will im, and all who have had much experience in institutes, will admit that very great improvement in their conduct is both feasible and desirable. any institutes do not accomplish a tithe of the good which a better manage- nt would secure. "These things being so", we need not call attention to e capital paper in this number on this subject. We have seldom read views institute instruction, which we so fully endorse. We regret that the length the paper obliged us to omit the first portion, in which the purpose and neral management of institutes are ably and practically discussed. It is ged that an institute is neither an educational convention nor a place of blic entertainment. Its prime purpose is to *benefit teachers*, and hence its struction is to be addressed directly to them. The exercises of the evening ssions may be adapted to popular audiences, but they should have direct lation to some part or aspect of the work of education.

—— MASSACHUSETTS is now, as she always has been, wise in her generation. She recognizes fully the fact that she can only retain her ancient and honorable standing in the community of States, in a material point of view, through her manufacturing interests; and, recognizing this, she is straining every nerve to develop in the mass of her citizens an ability to compete in all the fields of skilled labor with the best trained artisans of any country, and to take the lead of those of our own. To this end she is just now devoting special attention to drawing, which lies at the foundation of all technical instruction. Last year she made it a regular branch of instruction in all her schools of every grade, with the further provision that every town in the Commonwealth of ten thousand inhabitants and upwards, should be compelled to keep open a free evening drawing school during the winter months for the benefit of such as are prevented from attending the day schools, and it is expected that this provision will be extended before very long to the smaller towns. To organize and systematize her efforts she has secured the services of Mr. Walter Smith, who has had a long and successful experience in conducting technical and drawing schools in England, and who understands thoroughly what is required of him, and who brings to his task not only art knowledge but a large fund of common sense. The School of Technology in Boston and the Technical School at Worcester are vigorously supplementing these more general efforts. Both the institutions named are founded on a wise plan and are destined to exert a powerful influence on the practical education of the State. Might not a similar effort for training up skilled laborers be profitably inaugurated in some western localities? We have in Ohio, for instance, the third manufacturing city of the Union. What is she doing to place within the reach of her artisans those discoveries in science that are unfolding themselves every day, a knowledge of which makes a workman master indeed, but without which he is, in these latter days, utterly excluded from the field of successful competition? Cincinnati doubtless needs her Southern Railroad, but she needs her University with its technological departments more.

—— THERE are among the professed friends of public education some who believe that school teaching, like poesy, is "a gift," or, in other words, that ever real teacher is, to use a term of our Methodist friends, "called" to the profession, and that he who would venture upon the arduous duties of the school-master without the "gift" or "call" would most irreverently "fly in the face of Providence." Of course all who are of this way of thinking scout with great assurance the idea of normal schools and teachers' institutes. They indulge, also, in much wild and vague declamation about the freedom of nature and the immense importance of giving scope to the teacher's individuality, seeming to hug to their bosoms as an exceedingly precious and comforting doctrine the belief that the whole tendency of professional training is to make men narrow and to mould them into set forms of thinking. It is they, too, who encourage boards of education, as it is sometimes their interest to do, to set an estimate as light as their own on such training, and to view teachers' institutes only as an ingenious contrivance whereby the salary

of the pedagogue may be advanced. "What would become of lawyers and doctors", asks a writer in the May number of *Scribner's Monthly*, "if any greenhorn could try his hand on a case whenever he wished? Teaching will become a profession only when educators are obliged to prepare themselves for their work. . . . . The normal schools established in most of the States are helping to make teaching a profession, but there is much more to be done which is entirely beyond their control. The character and acquirements of those who are in a profession, make the standing of that profession." He then cites the example of Prussia, where none but graduates of colleges and the government normal schools are allowed to teach, even in the common schools, and suggests that a similar law in this country "would soon free the profession from that large class who teach only for a term." The intimation that twice or three times our present number of "authorized public training schools" would be adequate to supply the schools with trained teachers, shows how little the writer comprehends the normal problem. His earnest plea for normal training is, however, a hopeful sign that the public begins to realize that "nature" is turning out a very inadequate supply of "born teachers." Unquestionably natural aptitude is essential to the highest success in any department of skilled labor, but native genius needs to be supplemented by special training.

——The last semi-annual report of the superintendent of the public schools of Boston contains the most satisfactory exposition of statistics of school attendance that we have seen for some time. The very careful enumeration of May last made the number of persons in the city, between the ages of five and fifteen years, 45,970; and Mr. Philbrick proceeds to ascertain how far this number "due at school" can be accounted for. The average number of pupils belonging to the public schools for the year 1870 71 was 38,220; and the number belonging to the private schools 8,593, making the total number belonging to both classes of schools 46,813, which exceeds the number enumerated. Deducting the number of pupils in the schools over fifteen years of age, which by a careful estimate was 4,383, there remain 3,500 children of school age to be accounted for. Of this number of absentees 1.149 were between five and six years of age, too young to be in school: 1,419 left school at fourteen years of age; and 489 left between twelve and fourteen—leaving but 443 absentees to be accounted for. This estimate does not include the number withdrawn from the private schools between twelve and fifteen. It thus appears that the number of children between five and fifteen years of age, belonging to the public and private schools of Boston in 1870-71 was 92 per cent. of the whole number in the city; that six sevenths of those not attending school are satisfactorily accounted for, making 99 per cent. in school, or accounted for, and leaving less than *one* per cent. to be accounted for. This indicates that a very small number of children in the city are growing up without schooling, and yet newspaper writers and even educational speakers have affirmed that from 10,000 to 15,000 children are in the streets of the city, growing up in ignorance, idleness and vice. Mr. Philbrick states that in ten years he has not met the case of a child who has resided in the city until the

age of fourteen, without learning to read and write. He also gives his experience in searching for absentees from the schools during school hours. A three hours' expedition through the streets found but one child who had not a good reason for being out of school. The search was continued three days, with a similar result each day.

—— Mr. Philbrick attributes the small number of absentees found in the streets of the city, to the activity and vigilance of the truant officers. The following paragraph clearly states his position on the question of using compulsory measures to secure school attendance:

"But however favorable our statistics of attendance may appear, it is nevertheless quite certain that there are many children in the city who are not in the way of acquiring what may be called a competent education, that is, a good elementary education; and so long as there is one such child remaining, our efforts to improve the attendance, and reduce absenteeism, should not be relaxed. Among the forces to be relied upon to secure the general attendance of children at school, the character of the schools is the most important. The more nearly our schools approach to the most approved standard of excellence, the more they will be attended, not only by the children of the wealthier classes, but also by the children of the poor. In pursuing the conquest of ignorance this fact should ever be kept in the foreground. Still, the attractive force of a good school is not alone sufficient. Experience proves that it must be supplemented by coercive instrumentalities. As I have already intimated, the truant law, which has been in operation for twenty years, has proved a powerful auxiliary in the warfare against ignorance. Indirectly the truant officers have performed a very valuable service, which, perhaps, was not anticipated when the truant law was enacted; they have, to a very great extent, been the means of making those classes of persons who do not appreciate the value of education, at least feel the disgrace of voluntary ignorance. Let the sentiment once become universal among all classes of society that voluntary illiteracy is not only disgraceful, but criminal, and there will be comparatively little need of the *application* of compulsory means to secure school attendance."

The law of Massachusetts requires children to be sent to school for at least twelve weeks each year, until they are fourteen years of age, and it forbids the employment of children under fifteen years of age in manufactories unless they attended school at least three months of the preceding year. Mr. Philbrick states that while no complaints have been made against manufacturing establishments for violating the law, the practice of employing children from twelve to fourteen years of age in stores is becoming quite common. He urges that no pains should be spared "to secure to every child the advantages of schooling until the age of fourteen years"—which he believes to be, for the present, a reasonable minimum.

—— The boards of education of two townships in Summit county, Ohio, lately passed resolutions condemning the county board of examiners for failing to grant certificates to a much larger number of teachers. This resulted in a free newspaper conflict, in which several of the older teachers of the county, members of the township boards, and the county examiners participated. The teachers sustain the examiners, asserting that their standard of qualifications is reasonable and their examinations fair. The school directors complain that there are not enough teachers to supply the schools, and they insist that many of the rejected applicants are qualified to teach their schools. The qualifica-

tions which they deem sufficient, are energy, judgment, and tact, and they seem to think that a knowledge of the branches to be taught is of very little account. They are particularly severe on "the high per cent. teachers", averring that some of them do not succeed as well as the poor scholars who can not pass the examinations. They seem to hold that poor scholars have, as a class, more tact and governing ability than good scholars. The school law makes it the duty of examiners to ascertain by examination whether applicants are qualified *to teach* the several branches specified, and it is clearly assumed that a *knowledge* of these branches is an essential qualification. Is the law at fault? Will tact and energy enable a person who is ignorant of English grammar or arithmetic, to teach it? The law is clearly right in shutting the door of the teacher's office against all persons who do not possess a sufficient knowledge of the legal branches to teach them. It is not claimed that good scholarship is enough; a teacher needs tact and energy as well as scholarship. Tact without scholarship is as inadequate as scholarship without tact. But scholarship can be determined by an examination, while tact and governing ability can only be shown by actual experience in the school-room. In the absence of county superintendents, school directors must look out for the tact and energy. It would seem that there ought to be enough good scholars in Summit county, who have also tact and judgment, to supply the schools with competent teachers. The examiners state that it is their aim to license a sufficient number of teachers to supply all the schools, but the necessary material has not been at their command. It is possible that their present standard, under the circumstances, is a little too high, and this they concede, but it is not as high as it ought to be. The real difficulty evidently lies back of the examinations. The abandoning of the New England plan of winter and summer schools, *with two sets of teachers*, would do much to remove the present scarcity of teachers in the county. A school opened in the fall and taught six to eight months by one teacher, is worth twice as much as two terms of school taught by different teachers. When country teachers are employed for six to eight months in the year, there will be more competent teachers continuing in the business.

MORAL INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In the discussion of the Bible question, it has been frequently asserted that the intelligence is the entire domain of the public school; that intellectual training is its sole function. It is to be feared that these assertions, put forth as fundamental truths, have already lowered the moral tone and character of many schools. Too many teachers are willing to be free from all responsibility for the moral character of their pupils, and are glad to limit their efforts to scholastic instruction and in their discipline to take cognizance only of positive immoral conduct occurring in school hours. Now whatever may be true of the necessity of technical religious instruction in public schools, no one who properly estimates the value of moral character, can doubt the vital im-

portance of moral training. It is vastly more important, both to society and the State, that the pupils in our schools be trained to be truthful, honest, virtuous, temperate, and manly than that they be taught either or all of the legal branches of study. We hear much these days of "civil service reform", but the reform most needed by the nation is the moral elevation of the great body of the American people. Popular integrity will insure official integrity. Like people, like rulers is the law of republics.

Nor can moral instruction and training be left to the family. Experience shows that all possible moral agencies and influencies are needed. The teacher must supplement (not supplant) the parent. The school life of the child must constantly touch the heart and conscience. The school room must be a moral gymnasium for the development and reformation of character. The prime function of the public school is moral training.

We are rejoiced to see that the truth and importance of these views are beginning to be recognized by those who, in their zeal to banish the Bible from American schools, have countenanced the exclusion of moral instruction. A leading New York paper which has been a persistent advocate of the "intelligence" theory, recently urged "the absolute necessity ot moral instruction in the public schools." It sees that "the subject is not an easy one to deal with"; that "it fairly bristles with difficulties, real or apparent", but it urges that these difficulties must be encountered, not dodged. Accepted moral principles outnumber the disputed questions in morals, and there are many vices, as stealing, cheating, and lying, whose immorality is unquestioned. These principles, it is urged, can certainly be taught, and these vices can be reprobated and uprooted in the schools. Teachers are specially urged to make common cause against deception—the baneful vice of too many schools.

This is a hopeful sign, for when the public heartily concedes the necessity of moral instruction in our schools, it will not take long to settle the question of methods. The necessity of such instruction makes it an imperative duty, and this will, of itself, remove many difficulties. Experience will show, as it has shown, that formal instruction in catechisms and confessions is not essential to effective moral training, and, on the other hand, it will be found that something more is needed than the authority of human reason and the logic of expediency. The conscience needs to speak with an authority higher than itself. To this end moral instruction must be based upon and vitalized by religion—not its dogmas, forms, or rituals, but its spirit and sanctions. It may be questionable whether the technical religious teaching of the Prussian schools or the denominational schools of England greatly assists in improving the moral character of pupils, but no one can doubt the moral potency of the life and spirit of an earnest christian teacher. A christian example is better in the school-room than the longer or shorter catechism.

Whoever earnestly seeks the sanctions of religion to enforce moral precepts and quicken the conscience of his pupils, will find no necessity of trenching upon sectarian dogmas or prejudices. The difficulties may seem to be great in theory, but they disappear in practice. The essential condition is a teacher whose life is articulate with love to God and man.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—— The publishers of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, Messrs. G. & C. Merriam, Springfield, Mass., recently filled an order for sixteen copies from the capital of the island of Ceylon in the East Indies. In May they filled two orders from Japan, calling for one hundred and sixteen copies; also one from Constantinople for twelve copies. In April ninety-nine copies were sent to China and Japan from San Francisco. The indications are that Webster's Unabridged is to be the standard English dictionary of the world.

—— A National Teachers' Institute will be held at the Howard University, Washington, D. C., beginning July 1 and closing August 2. It will be under the direction of Prof. A. L. Barber, principal of the Normal Department of the University, who will be assisted by Miss Fanny M. Jackson, of Philadelphia, Miss Hall, a graduate of the Oswego Training School, and other competent instructors. The inducements offered ought to secure a large attendance. Prof. Barber is eminently qualified to conduct such an enterprise.

—— The New York State Teachers' Association meets at Saratoga Springs, July 23d–25th; the American Philological Association in Providence, R. I., July 24th; the German American Teachers' Association in Hoboken, N. J., he following week; the National Educational Association in Boston, August th, 7th, and 8th; the American Institute of Instruction in Lewiston, Me., ug. 13th, 14th, and 15th; and the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association i Philadelphia, Aug. 20th, 21st, and 22d,—an unusual number of consecutive eetings of important associations.

—— The Grand Trunk Railway is the only road from the West which, at is date (June 15th), has consented to offer reduced rates to delegates to the ational Educational Association. Excursion tickets from Chicago to Boston id return, by boat from Chicago to Sarnia and thence by Grand Trunk Railay, via Ogdensburg or Montreal, to Boston, and all rail returning, will be ld for $32. These tickets can be purchased only through Hon. J. L. Pickard, pt. Schools, Chicago, from June 27th to July 22d, and they will be good from ly 1st to Sept. 5th. They will not be transferable under any circumstances, d they must be used in accordance with the conditions printed upon them. eachers and other delegates who may wish to purchase these tickets, must pply to Supt. Pickard for a card, which will secure the ticket at the Grand runk office in Chicago. Applications by letter should enclose a postage amp for the return of the card.——Excursion tickets from St. Louis to Bos· n by Grand Trunk Railway from Sarnia can be bought in St. Louis for $41. arties purchasing tickets in St. Louis need not apply to Mr. Pickard for a rd.——The Grand Trunk Railway also agrees to return members of the ssociation free to Sarnia or Detroit, and intermediate points, who pay full re in going to the Association.

—— THERE are in the United States 51 normal schools, supported by 23 different States, having 251 teachers and 6,334 pupils; 4 supported by counties with 83 pupils; 16 city normal schools, with 121 teachers and 2,002 pupils; all others, 43, supported in various ways, with 80 teachers and 2,503 pupils; making a total of 114 schools, with 445 teachers and 10,921 pupils. The 43 private normal schools include colleges and other institutions that sustain normal departments.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE DIFFERENT STATES.

OHIO.—THE Supreme Court of Ohio has decided that the provision of the school law, authorizing the organization of separate schools for colored children, violates neither the Constitution of Ohio nor the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States. We infer from the decision that the separate schools for colored children must be equal in every respect to those organized for white children. The Court is silent respecting the rights of colored children when no separate school for them is sustained. We hope a case touching this point may soon come before the Court.

SCHOOL DIRECTORS IN COUNCIL.—The school directors of Summit county recently met at Akron, in response to a call of the board of education of Copley township, to consider the teacher question and the interests of the common schools. There was a good attendance. On motion of M. C. Reed, of Hudson, it was unanimously voted that the success of our common school system requires the appointment of a school superintendent in each county of the State—a sensible opinion. The committee on resolutions reported a whereas and resolution strongly condemning the county board of examiners, and demanding their "immediate and unconditional resignation." This gave rise to a lively and somewhat funny discussion. Several directors freed their minds, and, in doing so, made it evident that advanced wages is their greatest grievance. They want *cheap* teachers. The course pursued by the examiners has made teachers scarce, and there is no opportunity to "jew" down the applicants, as one director put it. A Mr. First did not wish to be controlled by "these three great lords"; he wanted an "every day class of people" to teach the schools. Several intelligent directors defended the examiners, and the preamble and resolution *were laid on the table by a unanimous vote*, after which the convention adjourned. We wish that school directors in every county in the State would hold a similar meeting.

NORTHEASTEN OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The regular bi-monthly meeting of this Association was held in Ravenna, June 8th, School Commissioner Harvey in the chair. Nearly all the neighboring cities and towns were represented. The whole number of teachers present was about 120. The committee on the revision of the course of study for grammar schools reported in favor of introducing oral instruction in physics, zoölogy, and botany, that the pupils, many of whom never reach the high school, may acquire some knowledge of nature, with habits of observation. The majority of those who engaged in the discussion approved of the report. On motion of Mr. Henkle,

the discussion was continued as a part of the programme of the next meeting. An exercise in map-drawing by pupils of the Ravenna schools, was highly commended. Mr. H. M. James, of the Cleveland schools, read an excellent paper on "Oral Instruction and Text-Books", in which a medium position was taken. He held that while most of the instruction of little children should be oral, pupils should be taught the use of books; should acquire the ability to gain knowledge from the printed page. The paper was heartily endorsed by all who took part in its discussion. A sumptuous dinner was served by the ladies of Ravenna. The next meeting is to be held in Cleveland the second Saturday in October. This Association is now in its third year, and, in attendance, interest, and influence, it leads all similar associations in the State.

MARIETTA.—The grammar school in charge of Mr. J. D. Phillips is one of the most remarkable in the country. It is practically a self-governing school, the silent, personal influence of the principal being the only force needed. It is said that there is not a communication in the room, without permission, from one month to another, and the most complete harmony and love prevail among the pupils. This is the result of a moral training which touches the heart and conscience. Mr. Phillips says of his pupils, as was said of Monroe, that "if their hearts were turned inside out, not one spot could be found to tarnish them." This expresses his confidence in them. He has no assistant though the average daily attendance of the school is over one hundred.

CINCINNATI.—The teachers' meetings called by the superintendent during the present school year have been, with a single exception, devoted to the instruction of the regular teachers in the three specialties, penmanship, drawing, and music. We understand the progress made by teachers in these branches has been very gratifying, and that the training is showing excellent results in the schools. The music especially exhibits a marked improvement over other years in the lower grades of the schools. The one exception, above referred to, was a meeting of the higher grade teachers to listen to a lecture from Dr. Saal, a former member of the board of education, on Spectrum Analysis. The subject was treated in an able manner, and illustrated by experiments. It is a department of science upon which the doctor has expended much time and study, and one which he is well calculated to render interesting to an audience.

KANSAS.—The annual report for 1871 opens with a note of gratulation which is fully sustained by the results of the summary of statistics. The ratio of increase in almost every department in the schools, keeps pace with the progress of population. The number of school districts increases by 579. The school population, between the ages of 5 and 21, is 142,358, an increase of 33,064, some 43 per cent. The number enrolled is 89,707, an increase of 26,559, or 24 per cent. The average daily attendance is 52,891, an increase of 13,490, or 40 per cent. The average length of time during which the schools have been taught is 5 8 months, an increase of .6 months, and a very gratifying exhibit for a State so new. The total amount expended for school purposes is $1,074,296, an increase of $275,627, of which $534,261 was raised by direct taxation. A very good "course of study is suggested, based upon

the readers used, and containing some valuable hints, both as to methods of instruction and management of the schools. A well deserved compliment is paid to women as teachers, with a sharp fling at those who, "woman educated," occupy high offices of trust in the commonwealth; and who are supposed to be responsible for the fact, "that these do not for equal labor receive equal remuneration as men." But query. Are those entrusted with the public funds at liberty, on principles of justice, to pay more for the service required than its market value? The difference between the wages of men and women as teachers, is due to the fact that well qualified women are found willing to teach for the wages offered. That women should receive the same wages as men, for the same work, is but a truism; but are school officers authorized to give higher wages for teaching than will secure the teacher and the teaching they require? Attention is called to the excessive length of the school day, and a law suggested reducing the school day to four hours, instead of six, with some strong arguments in favor of the change—arguments which would be conclusive if the only object of school discipline were to keep the attention riveted upon the studies. In common with all othes States Kansas groans under the multiplicity of text books in the county districts, and a consequent want of uniformity in the studies and classes—an evil which certainly has one remedy, and that is for the directors to own the text-books, as the property of the school, for the use free, or at a nominal rental, of the successive generations of scholars. Compulsory attendance, wrongly called compulsory education, is favored. We confess that it seems a wrong to compel the property of the State to support free schools, and then suffer the very class, whose existence makes *free* schools a necessity, to ignore their existence! The arguments of the report upon this point are strong. There are practical difficulties; but grant the principle that no parent has the right to bring up his child in ignorance, and experience with wise patience, will find a way to remedy the difficulty. We have but little faith that a general compulsory law will correct the evil.

MAINE.—If the report of Kansas is full of youthful hopes and inspiring progress, that of Maine is not less interesting, as showing the noble struggles of an old Commonwealth, to adjust itself to changes, hardly less trying than those of the youthful sister, and to close up the ranks thinned by migration and concentration. The commonwealth is congratulated that "the amount of money raised for school purposes, $1,043,988, has been quite as large as in preceding years," with the exception of "cost of new school houses." The average attendance of scholars, 93,066 in the summer schools, 107,717 in the winter, is the same as last year." The average length of the school year is 19 weeks 3 days, with 5½ days to the week. Gratifying advance is noted in the quality of instruction, attributed "to the influence of normal schools, teachers' institutes, graded certificates and higher wages." County supervision, a mooted subject in many of our States, is said to have "demonstrated anew its value as an educational agency, and vindicated its rank as the 'right hand' of influence in the school room, and in stimulating and directing the efforts of interested educators to proper channels of activity," but

e legislature recently abolished the system. In Maine, as elsewhere, "the :ademy system is gradually yielding to the more vigorous and better sup-orted free high schools," a change not to be deprecated if only the high chools, with their superior facilities, will keep up the standard of higher edu-:ation. The schools of Maine are in a transition state from the old town sys-tem to one more comprehensive, and designed to diffuse more equally the ad-vantages of education. Great inequality has existed in the mode of levying taxes, the variations in the several towns being from one mill and a half to the the extreme rate of thirty-one mills. Legislation is asked for which will rem-edy this evil, and the statement is made "that with two exceptions, New Hamp-shire and Nebraska, Maine has the shortest schools of any of the North-eastern States; also that Maine pays the lowest wages for teachers' services, compared with those paid in any other State; and that in her school expendi-ture, *per capita* of school population, Maine ranks the lowest of the Northern States, holding the twenty-first position; while in wealth, *per capita*, she holds the thirteenth." Compulsory attendance is advocated and the draught of a law submitted.

PENNSYLVANIA.—It is proposed to make the next meeting of the State Asso-ciation, to be held in the Academy of Music, Philadelphia, August 20–22, the most important in its history. The Philadelphians will give the Association a fine reception, and a local committee has specially invited many prominent friends of education to be present.——The *School Journal* states that hun-dreds of graded schools are being established in the rural districts of the State, and that a few central township high schools have been organized.——The city of Lancaster has just completed a school census. Of the 4,032 children n the city, between the ages of six and sixteen, 3,172 attended school, public or private, some portion of the year. Of the 860 children who did not attend chool, 512 were over twelve years of age, but no inquiry was made respect-ng the number of these who had acquired an elementary education.——On he 7th of May the annual election of county superintendents occurred roughout the State. The conventions of directors were very well attend-d, and good selections were generally made. Out of the sixty-five super-ntendents elected, thirty-eight served the past term. Twenty-three counties ncreased the salaries of their superintendents. Eighteen cities and boroughs lected superintendents, and seven of them made an increase in salaries.—— he *School Journal* closed its twentieth volume with the June number—the est of the twelve volumes which we have received.

WEST VIRGINIA.--A correspondent (T. C. M.) reports the State Normal chool at Fairmont to be in a prosperous condition, the number of students n attendance this year being greater than that of any other year. Five stu-ents in the preparatory course graduated at the close of the year. A new uilding (38x80) will be completed by the opening of the fall session. The ublic schools of Fairmont are under the supervision of the principal, and one epartment is used as a model school, in which the students are allowed to onduct recitations in the presence of the teacher in charge. The public

schools made good progress the past year. The number of pupils enrolled was about 400 ——The new constitution, to be ratified, makes the office of State Superintendent of Free Schools one of the executive offices of the State, and the salary ($1,500) is greater than is paid the Treasurer, Attorney General, or Secretary of State.

MINNESOTA.—The first State Normal School, at Winona, graduated twenty-one students in May—the finest class which has yet completed the course of training. The regular exercises were preceded by a very pleasant incident. The President of the Board of Trustees, on behalf of many friends, presented Miss Mary V. Lee a choice collection of medical works and a fine case of surgical instruments. Miss Lee leaves the school to enter the medical profession, and hence the gift was both appropriate and valuable. On the last day of the term, the trustees, teachers, and pupils of the school, presented Prof. Phelps a very fine microscope, valued at $150.——A normal institute, composed of the principals and teachers of the three State Normal Schools, was held at Winona the two weeks succeeding the close of the normal term. The exercises consisted of illustrative class drills in all the branches of study, with criticisms and comparisons, and a free discussion of principles and methods of teaching. The object of the institute was to give the normal teachers an opportunity to show each other *how they do it and why.* The session was a very profitable one.

IOWA.—The public schools of Davenport, under the supervision of W. E. Crosby, formerly of Ohio, are making fine progress. The last semi-annual report shows an average enrollment of 2,536, with an average daily attendance of 2,389. The superintendent recommends a more stringent rule respecting attendance, greater efforts to reclaim willful absentees and truants, and to induce parents to send their children to school, and the establishment of special unclassified and half-day schools for the benefit of those pupils who can not maintain regular standing, and those who can not attend school the entire day. He reports the successful introduction of lessons in the elements of the natural sciences? Davenport is one of the few cities in the country that maintains a training school for the preparation of teachers. The school was organized ten years ago and long since demonstrated its utility.——The public school of Council Bluffs are graded on the plan of the Chicago schools, and the course of study is nearly the same. The city has six good school buildings and employs twenty-seven teachers. The efficient superintendent, Mr. A. Armstrong, was formerly a teacher in Ohio.

——DENMARK is trying the half day system. In Copenhagen a school is attended by a thousand children in the morning and by another thousand in the afternoon, both sessions being conducted by the same teachers. The plan is designed to give children the opportunity to work the half of each day. The half-time system has been successfully tried in the primary schools of several American cities and towns.

BOOK NOTICES.

SCIENCE PRIMERS. Edited by Profs. HUXLEY, ROSCOE, and BALFOUR STEWART. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Geo. H. Twiss, Agent, Columbus, Ohio.

These excellent little books are written and published with the design of creating, as well as satisfying, a demand for elementary instruction in science in Great Britain, and American teachers are certainly indebted to this enterprising house for their reproduction in this country. Owing, we believe, to the illness of Prof. Huxley, the "Introduction" is not yet published, the series at present consisting of the "Chemistry" by Prof. Roscoe, and the "Physics" by Prof. Balfour Stewart. To edit a Science Primer is a more difficult task than to compose a treatise. One must possess the ability to write a treatise with the determination not to do so, combined with that faculty of selection and presentation which is confessedly so rare. In these two little volumes we have the results of the labors in this direction of two eminent scientists, each an original contributor and an acknowledged master in his specialty. The method of study is experimental and easy. In the Chemistry, for instance, we have chapters on fire, air, water, and earth to begin with. These are followed by a brief discussion of the principal non-metallic elements and metals. We begin with the question, "What happens when a taper burns?" and by a few simple experiments and tests we learn that carbonic acid is produced, that water is formed, and also that nothing has been lost from the taper, but that its form has only changed. We are thus easily led to comprehend the nature of chemical changes, and passing on to air we, in a similar manner, discover its constitution and something of the nature of the elements of which it is composed. And so on, through water and earth, the method and matter of Chemistry are developed in a simple style, and entirely free from the ordinary difficulties of nomenclature, theory of combination, etc., etc. These things are briefly discussed at the close, after the young student has become tolerably familiar with most of the elements and their simple compounds. The little book on Physics is written after the same general method, and possesses the parodoxical merit of density without heaviness, so remarkable in the author's large treatise. In short, these two primers are worthy of the attention of all interested in instruction in science. They are delightful books.

T. C. M.

A TEXT-BOOK OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. By LE ROY C. COOLEY, A.M. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. Alex. Forbes, Agent, Cleveland, Ohio.

This volume formes the highest book in the series of text books upon this subject by the same author, some of which have been noticed in a previous number of this ournal. The book contains many desirable features. The "Topics for Review" in he beginning will be of value to the pupil as well as the teacher. The introduction f practical problems in Physics whenever possible throughout the book, is a most xcellent thing. The methods of treatment of the different subjects are, in the nain, good and, now and then, a demonstration bears the very valuable stamp of aving been forged in the school-room work-shop. Some inaccuracies and bad lefinitions might be quoted, and, here and there, a passage, something like the ollowing, which to say the least, is as discouraging to the student as it is undesirable in a treatise on Physics: "But shall we ask what is this single power whose effects are so varied and imposing? We name it attraction. Who need enquire further? The little bird that beats his head against the cage bars, affords a warning to the man of science who would attempt to search for this, which God has hidden."

T. C. M.

THE FIFTH READER and THE SIXTH READER. By LEWIS B. MONROE, Superintendent of Physical and Vocal Culture in the Public Schools of Boston, Mass. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.

These are the two higher books of a new series of readers in preparation by Prof Monroe. Next to their superior mechanical execution, the most obvious excellence is the adaptation of the selections to the cultivation of a natural and repressive style of reading. Our school readers are usually too largely filled with oratorical and dramatic pieces, above the comprehension and experience of the young, and the result is a stiff and mechanical utterance. Prof. Monroe has evidently taken great pains to select pieces that will be understood, appreciated, and enjoyed by the pupils, and that require a lively, conversational expression. We are rejoiced to find so small a number of selections that afford an opportunity to put on the "agony" to split the ears of groundlings. The selections also possess great literary excellence, and they are pure and ennobling in moral influence. The introduction is commendably free from set rules and "principles" of elocution. It prevents, what is more valuable in a school reader, practical exercises in physical and vocal training —drills which have been worked out and tested in the school-room. These two books are an assurance that the series will possess great excellence.

THE NEW AMERICAN SERIES OF SPELLERS: The New American Primary Speller and the New American Pronouncing Speller. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

The plan of the Primary Speller is simple and unique. The first fifty lessons are composed of easy and familiar words, grouped to illustrate the vowel sounds. These are followed by brief tables of words arranged topically, and designed not only to be spelled, but to be used in sentences descriptive of objects, many of which are represented in pictures. The pupil is thus taught the orthography, meaning, and use of "every-day" words. The Pronouncing Speller contains a larger number of words, and the pronunciation is indicated by the same diacritical marks as those used in the latest edition of Webster's Dictionary. These Spellers certainly merit the attention of teachers.

SCRIBNER'S MONTHLY MAGAZINE.—This fine illustrated magazine is constantly growing in excellence and popularity. It appears to have exactly hit the best admixture of the useful and the entertaining. It contains profound articles on banking and political economy, and, at the same time, capital sketches of travels and well-told stories. "Back-Log Studies," by the rising author of "My Summer in a Garden," is a remarkable series of papers—one of the very best that has lately appeared in magazine literature. The contributions of the accomplished editor are always well written and pointed. Mr. Holland is never dull. The illustrations are generally good. Take it all together, this magazine is one of the best in the country. It is of high moral tone and no one need hesitate to introduce it into the sacred enclosure of the family. It is beautifully printed in large type, but on paper a little too thin.

THE SCHOOL FESTIVAL is a quarterly Magazine, devoted entirely to new dialogues and other exercises for Sunday-school and Day-school exhibitions and public days. It is conducted by Alfred L. Sewell, of Chicago, for several years editor of "THE LITTLE CORPORAL," and Mrs. M. B. Slade, of Fall River, Massachusetts. This is ample assurance that it is just the thing long needed. The tenth number (April) contains several capital dialogues. The price of the School Festival is 75 cents a year; but we will send it and this journal to one address for $1.75 a year.

THE

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THE SCHOOLMASTER.

The original philosopher who proposed, a few years ago, to inaugurate a "man's rights' society" was not so wild as some of us may have imagined. It may not be premature, in view of present tendencies in this country, to break ground for a schoolmaster's "protective union." Americans, perhaps all sorts of people, are given to extremes. Once the whole work of instruction of youth was in the hands of men—and priests at that. Even yet in Europe the schoolmaster is a mighty potentate, and, with the Government behind him, seems hardly to hear the irresistible tramp of the women, moving on to dispossess him of his inheritance. Within our own recollection the schools which were attended by youths above mere children, were almost exclusively taught by men. Doubtless this preference for male influence in the school-room was too exclusive, and instruction suffered thereby both in the development of the intuitive and the practical faculties. There were, however, great merits in the old regime, as the success of the American school system of the last half century can testify.

But one of the most vital social changes wrought by our great civil war, was the rush of the schoolmistress to the front, and her capture of the common school. Large numbers of our schoolmasters went off to the war and never came home; and the furious competitions of private and public masculine life are still depleting the school-room of men. It was discovered that

women could do a great deal more and a great deal better work in the school-house than had been suspected. The war left multitudes of girls, more or less educated, dependent upon their own exertions, eager to do any literary work, at almost any price. The conjunction of a pleasant surprise in favor of an underrated element of humanity and an opportunity to relieve the body politic of taxation made just the state of affairs for a sweeping American "movement." To glorify womanhood and save money at the same time, is a temptation few men can resist. It has not been resisted; and just now the educational world is pouring itself forth in a resistless flood of mingled chivalry and economy in favor of placing our American common school almost exclusively in the charge of women.

Especially does a class of masculine educators, gifted with the rare faculty of at once inspiring and controlling an army of lady teachers and apt to differ with subordinates of their own sex, recommend the banishment of men from every post, save that of supervision, in district schools. The Cincinnati Board of Education has just been agitated by a violent effort to "reconstruct" the male principals out of their present positions in the District and Intermediate schools, and leave the highest work in school-houses, containing from 600 to 1200 children, of five grades, in the hands of the female first assistant; and, although the project was defeated, yet the popular sympathies evidently turned toward the plan, and the Bohemian educational reformers in the newspapers and the solons of the common council struck a popular chord in their wholesale abuse and ridicule of the only English male teachers left in these great schools as useless or ornamental officials, hired to play at deportment in the midst of a bevy of hard-worked ladies, at a generous salary.

We believe that, like most of our American crazes, this excessive preference for feminine influence in the public school-room will react into a more sensible view of the natural division of labor in the sacred office of instruction. We are glad to indorse any wise and enthusiastic thing that can be said in favor of the superiority of women in dealing with human nature, in certain directions, at any period of life. God has made womanhood to be the most profound and winning representative of his love to man in the eternal life of the soul. In the whole realm where the spirit is to be lifted out of the limitations of materialistic, prudential, worldly considerations, and placed in contact with ideals of truth, beauty, and love; in the sacred sphere of the

me, and the more spiritual phases of the religious life; in that licate border land where character flowers out into manners; so in the whole world of the minor economies and minute laptations that "make ends meet" in practical affairs; here, oubtless, woman is the invaluable instructor of childhood as ell as manhood. This region has hitherto been greatly neg-ected in popular education, and the recent change will pour a ood of vitality through it. Other things being equal, a woman n all such ways will be the best guide to the child in school, as he naturally leads in the family and in society. There may be woman, now and then, who, in addition to all this, can do the ork for which man is especially endowed; but in all such ases that have fallen under our observation, she has done so ither at the risk of impairing her own peculiar spiritual func-ions, or at a perilous expenditure of nervous vitality.

Probably the Almighty knew what he was about when he cre-ted a man for every woman, ordained that a family should con-st of a husband and a wife, distributed boys and girls in the ame household, and endowed manhood with decisive ability to mplement the holy office of womanhood. There is an actual well as an ideal world; a realm of definite reasoning, logical quence, human relations and limitations as surely as a realm high sentiment and aspiration for eternity. There is a severe vernment of human passions, appetities, even of the higher ements of our being, without which we all float away into vast allows of vague and negative existence. In all that "reins " the spirit, puts a human being in position to "lay aside ery weight and run the race" of life, man is commander-in-ief of the world.

There is, especially, a most decisive realm of American cir-mstances and obligations about the mass of the children in nerican public schools. For half a dozen years, at the most, ey are gathered by the paternal state in the school-room, and en they are cast out into the terrible current that sweeps ay the boy or girl of our land into a precocious maturity. place these children exclusively in contact with women, gen-ally young and inexperienced in the ways of the world, often such a style of birth and social opportunity that the whole of man life outside their narrow girlish circle is *terra incognita*, d, especially the American practical and public world, an un-empted riddle, is to do a very perilous thing for American iety.

The whole sensitive nature of the child is developed at home, and, in the present pre-occupied state of fathers, is even there too much in the hands of the women of the family. As a consequence, American children, in cities especially, where men are so terribly absorbed in out-door life, bear the marks of too exclusive a feminine training. Far more sensitive, precocious, "interesting", than the children of other lands, they are less vigorous, more excitable, irritable, and ungovernable than any previous generation of children in any civilized country. Their virtues and faults are those of the average womanhood of the United States. The one need of American family life now is a strong infusion of paternal firmness, consistency, and practical wisdom. We believe it is owing greatly to the neglect of paternal duty in the American family that our cities are swarming with a crop of children that will tax the highest skill of the doctor to keep alive, puzzle the divine to convert, and test the statesman to keep inside the limits of a wise American citizenship.

The fact is a woman can not be a man, and she can not play man without a terrible derangement of human life. To divide the house, as we are doing in our cities, making the father a vagrant money-maker without, and the mother an ambitious social autocrat within, will land us in social pandemonium. The child needs perpetual contact with man and woman every day, in every phase of his life. It may be agreeable and chivalrous for our educated young men to rush off into business, and the excitements of public and professional life, leaving the young womanhood of the land to shoulder this tremendous institution, the common school, but we are sure it will be for the worse if done.

Especially do our children need masculine wisdom and firmness in the school-room, because this is the great school of American citizenship. It is preposterous to say that girls of the usual age of our public school teachers can train up these heterogeneous masses of children into a due observance of their social relations with one another, and give them adequate ideas of American citizenship. These girls do not themselves expect to become active citizens, and are afflicted with the haziest ideas of the industrial and public life that awaits the boys they instruct. At best their interest in boys is literary, personal, and moral, and their pupils go out almost untouched in that which should be a especial object of common-school training. Generally, our sup-

rior lady teachers are most deficient in this direction;—their contemptuous indifference to every thing outside the sphere of a refined woman's life being too evident. It is owing to this that, while our great public schools are gaining power in all that stimulates juvenile liveliness, precocity, readiness to seize on the attractive side of culture, our children are coming out of their educational courses too tender, sensitive, and impracticable to fit in to the stern demands of our national life.

This lack can not be met by placing supervision in the hands of strong men: Every idea undergoes a radical change in passing from a male superior through the soul of a woman to a child. We need the perpetual contact of an experienced, wise, good man, at least with all the upper grades of our district schools; and if we can have men in these places, who are fathers of children of mature age, well-informed in the ways of the American world, so much the better. Such a change as this would develop what is so much needed in our country—a reliable class of professional common-school masters. No normal training can impart that experience and wisdom which only come by years and actual knowledge of life.

Unmarried women—almost the only class of mature women in our common schools—can not supply this want. While we would open the doors wide to the educated womanhood of the land, and welcome it to our common schools, place it in charge, to a great extent, of the primary instruction of small children, give it a place all the way up, even in posts of supervision, and on boards of education, urging that equality of wages should follow equality of ability and service, we would yet insist that manhood should coöperate at every point. No school is perfect where the two elements of life, represented by man and woman, are not constantly felt in instruction and discipline. A great public school without a schoolmaster, into which a strolling superintendent looks once a day, is an institution so out of the ordinary currents of our human nature, so ill-adapted to the needs of our American life, that our people will not long persist in such a costly experiment.

One of the evils of this excessive assumption of authority by women in the school-room, is the physical wear and tear. Any body who has lived in a sea-faring community, where the women are left to the sole care of children, recalls the look of sadness and weariness in those stern and faithful mothers, and sees the effect on the character of the boys. As many women were slain

by lonely service in the household during our late war as men on the battle-field. The great wrong of thrusting our young enthusiastic women into the almost exclusive charge of these great masses of school children, of all styles of ability and character, every variety of parentage and nationality, is already apparent. These young women can not teach and govern such communities without a strain upon their health, and a derangement of their nervous power, that leaves them old women at thirty. The face of the city schoolmistress is as well defined as any portrait in city life. The compound pressure of affectionate and inspiring sentiment with a ruffled spirit and an overworked brain, writes on her brow a lesson we shall do well to heed. We do not believe it good economy thus to make our city and large village schools the slaughter-houses of the finest young women in America, either to save money, or to experiment in pedagogics. Any relation in life that leaves womanhood virtually "played out" at thirty, is a false relation. The time will come when we shall not deem it wise to force the young schoolmistress, not only to do the work of a mature man, but of a wise christian mother to fifty children.

Our public school system is yet in its infancy. It will be the favorite field for reckless and bold theorizing for half a century to come. Some of these theories will destroy the children, others will cripple the teachers;—all will help to swell the tide of unfriendly criticism and malignant hostility that is gathering for an onset upon this whole side of our national life. It is well to "make haste slowly", and especially beware how we abuse that most beautiful thing on earth, the consecrated enthusiasm of young womanhood, by casting on it unnatural and impossible burdens. We are not to be outdone in our grateful appreciation of all that our young women are now doing in the public schools of America. Nothing like it was ever seen in this world, and it is the astonishment of every observing traveler from abroad. But, perhaps because we are a man, we have no prejudice against our own sex in the field of public instruction, and stand by the schoolmaster as indispensable to success in every place where childhood is to be trained for the mighty obligations of American life.

A. D. Mayo.

Cincinnati, Ohio, June, 1870.

OVERTASKING CHILDREN'S BRAINS.

A Little on the Other Side of the Question.

A great deal has been said and written, during the past few ears, about the overtasking of children's brains. Physicians, lergymen, lawyers, teachers, and parents alike, have joined in general outcry against this sin, as it is termed, of overtasking hildren at school.

A child, for example, is attending school, seems out of health, s nervous and excitable, and appears to be "running down." The physician is called in. He feels the pulse of the child, finds t too quick or too slow, and at once, without inquiring into the hild's *home habits*, advises the parent to withdraw it from school; nd, very probably, enters upon a tirade against the dreadful, ernicious, poisonous atmosphere of our school-rooms! Talks bout the inhuman teacher, who, it is said, is just killing the oor children with overwork, by cramming their little heads vith lessons! Perhaps the good physician advises sending the hild into the country, to stay with grandma and run about, or o spend a few weeks on uncle's farm. A prescription, in the hape of a tonic is left, and the doctor is off. The child is taken rom school, and sent to the country. In a few weeks the child eturns to its home greatly improved in health, and the fond arent thinks the physician was right, and concludes that his elicate child had been really overworked—nay, nearly killed t school.

Now we are not going to say that *some* children are not over- sked at school, for a twenty-five years' experience as a practi- l teacher has convinced us that not a few children study too rd, and are confined too many hours per day in the school- om; but, at the same time, we are equally sure that by far the rger number of the young who are *thought* to be mentally erworked, and are removed from school in consequence, are t *really* so. In the large, airy, and generally well-ventilated hool-rooms of our cities, the poorer class of children, especially, d a "refuge of health" in the school-room for five or six urs in a day, by being away from the confined and almost etilential atmospheres of their own narrow, crowded, and ten filthy homes.

Now no one of intelligence will contend but that the *healthy*

condition of the brain is *activity*. The most healthy brain is an active one. Nature shows this even in infancy and in the tenderest years of childhood, by that constant reaching forth of the little hand to find out some new thing, and by the inquisitiveness of the little prattlers. It does the mind good to *think*, to be kept on the alert, and constantly active; and no child's brain is injured by *judicious* study, nor, as a general rule, by what might be thought *hard* study. Observation has convinced us that far more injury is done to children by not minding how the *stomach*, the great work-shop of the system, is cared for than by giving the brain plenty to do. If parents would pay more attention to the *food* which the child eats, whether it is of proper kind and quality, whether it is properly masticated; see to it that the child does not overload its stomach, just when it happens to relish some particular kind of food, we should soon hear much less about overtasked brains. We are well satisfied that, if parents would only give proper care to what their children *eat*, see to it that they are early sent to bed and have plenty of sleep, and are properly clad in all kinds of weather, we should cease to hear these exaggerated statements about children being *killed* with *study*.

But we will suppose that the child is already weak and somewhat broken down, and it may be asked, Would you then continue to send the child to school? We answer emphatically, YES! under certain restrictions.

First, if it seems necessary, give it a short respite from all *tasks* of any sort, and then send the child to school again, placing it under the care of an experienced and judicious teacher. At first, do not try to *grade* the pupil, but require light tasks, and increase them as the strength of the child will permit. At any rate, give the child *something* to do, some occupation, some study, be it ever so little. Let the number of hours at school be regulated by the evident ability of the scholar to endure. Be sure that the mind is kept active, and see to it that the child takes proper exercise. Do not let it read exciting novels;—mind what it eats; how it sleeps; and, our word for it, parents will find themselves possessed of a *grand panacea* for most of the ills to which children are peculiarly liable.

Cincinnati, Ohio. J. B. C.

HOW SHOULD SPELLING BE TAUGHT?

:n will the vexed question be settled, How best to teach
en to spell? When shall we ourselves arrive at conclu-
:o satisfactory as to justify us in prescribing a method?
ear or more ago, yielding to the force of the arguments
:t the drill on the nonsense columns of the speller to which
holars had been accustomed, the teachers obtained permis-
) put the speller entirely aside and confine their instruc-
) the words contained in the reading-books.
the annual examinations and the dictation exercises which
tering class of the present year were put upon after their
sion to the High School, seemed to indicate that there had
etrogression as to knowledge of spelling; and forthwith
)f the teachers (the field being left open to experiments on
nsettled question) went back to the drill in the spellers.
se facts lead me to make some comments on this branch of

For it must occupy so much time, at the best, and from
:ture of the case—our composite language being ceaselessly
:ed by fresh increments—is so destined to make ever in-
ng demands on the attention of our youth, that we can not
to waste time in empirical attempts to find out the method
secute it to the best advantage, but must act definitely on
)asis of enlightened philosophy.
:ainly there must be a basis of philosophy even to so prosy
:er as teaching children how to spell.
ask then, in the first place, how much importance is rea-
:y to be attached to this study? What profit is to be de-
from it? These questions must be answered before we
:telligently decide how much time it may be allowed to
me.
ply *that it is simply a grace of learning and not an integral
t of it.* It is to written language what an accurate pro-
:tion is to spoken language, and no more.
) spelling as Bacon, Spenser, and Shakspeare used in their
:sitions, would be rated as a gross deformity in the compo-
: of a schoolboy of to-day. Cultured minds do not often
:ll, not because right spelling inevitably accompanies
ng, as a constituent of intellectual action, but because the
:rity with language incident to culture, prints the appear-
)f each word correctly on the memory. Suppose all the

words in the language were to be spelled just as they sound: they would be spelled very differently from their correct spelling now; but would not their sense be just the same?

Our teachers, therefore, may safely dismiss—if any entertain it—the supposition which harasses so many, that the mistakes which may be made by their scholars in spelling can justly be rated as evidence of defect in their general intellectual training. This notion, strenuously urged as good sound doctrine by some and accepted and acted on as such by thousands—sometimes indeed, even strained so far as to imply that instruction in spelling is a mighty instrument in the work of intellectual development,—is evidently only the suggestion of fond prejudice to justify adherence to its proclivities. True, any processes whatever of which the symbols of thought are the objects, will incidently be of advantage to thought itself. But I should as soon think of setting a man to chopping and piling cord-wood all winter for the sake of learning the distinctions which prevail between the different varieties of trees, as to set a boy to spell for the sake of cultivating his mind.

2. In the second place, this fact is to be taken into consideration, that the direct usefulness of spelling *is limited almost entirely to connection with what one writes.* One certainly does not need a drill in spelling to enable him to read, for orthography and phonography have not a great deal in common, and many a fine reader is a wretched speller. What remains? Do our scholars expect to go about spelling words for show among their friends and acquaintances, after they become men and women, and must be accomplished for such a performance? That is a ridiculous thought. Here, then, the important question comes in: How wide a range among words is it necessary to take into consideration, in order to enable the majority of those who go out from our Grammar Schools to spell correctly all the words which they are likely to use *in composition*, during their lives?

I say the majority; for there will be a minority in every class who will be studious lovers of books, and who will prosecute their studies through all the grades, so as to become gradually conversant with literature. Familiarity with words, therefore, will almost inevitably teach them to spell without the need of any special pains. It is the majority, made up of the unstudious, the careless, and those who can attend school only a limited period, who need be taken into view.

This majority, then, whose attainments will be quite limited

and who are not likely to become conversant with literature—what sort of writings will make up the list of their probable compositions? Letters to friends, simple business papers and records, commonplace notes in aid of memory, and the like, will fully exhaust the range.

I now ask, What and how many words does the vocabulary of the masses of the people contain, on which our scholars will draw in framing such compositions as have been named? *Not more than* 1,500. That is a large allowance. The vocabulary of the wholly unlearned among those who speak the English language, does not exceed 500 words. That of those taught in our elementary schools alone, can not be more than threefold that number, even allowing a wide margin to each individual for the stock of words peculiar to himself.

But we will add one third more, and make the number 2,000. Now our speller contains—more or less—10,000 words; more than either Milton or Shakspeare used in all the marvelous plenitude of their vocabularies. If, then, we drill our scholars in the whole of the speller, *we occupy time in the exercise on five times the number of words the most of the scholars are ever likely to use, where a knowledge of spelling will be of the slightest account.*

Is this judicious? Can we afford it? I do not say that it is an absolute waste of time, for, as has been before remarked, one can not be exercised in any wise on the symbols of thought, without picking up casually some mental gains. But relatively—in view of the time we need for channels of instruction of the last importance, which now receive little or no attention—I say it is a criminal waste. And I am astonished at the practice of those school committees and superintendents who give strings of unusual words, difficult to spell, as tests of proficiency in this branch, and thus enforce an unnecessary amount of attention to it, which must be subtracted from other branches of indispensable value.

There has been a wonderful improvement in this particular; still the class of words frequently selected for such a purpose, even now, serves no earthly purpose but to beget an anxious strain in the teachers after accuracy where accuracy is of comparatively little value. Only let me have classes capable of writing correctly the words which will enter into their ordinary vocabularies and I shall be abundantly content!

Let no one urge, out of vague notions on the subject, "Oh,

limitations like these will never do! We must make thorough spellers of our scholars at all events!"

Thorough spellers! There are in our language somewhere near 115,000 words; and thoroughness would demand that we should teach our scholars how to spell them all! Such an idea is simply absurd. There must be a limit; and what, in reason, should the limit be, but that of probable use?

Once more, let no one advance the well-worn argument, "You must teach the children while they are in school, all the spelling they are to be expected ever to know; for it is impossible for one to learn to spell when he becomes mature." Astonishing that such an assumption should have obtained credence for an indefinite period, and have dictated the methods of spelling in thousands of schools, when a little examination would have proved it to be utterly false! I take shame to myself that I thoughtlessly accepted it years ago upon trust, and deferred to it, and printed it as one among important hints to teachers. Persons of literary tastes and habits are constantly learning and using new words, and using them aright. It is safe to say that from a third to a half of the vocabularies of cultured persons has been acquired since they came to maturity. So true is this last statement, that I have felt safe in arguing that we need be very little concerned about the future power to spell of those of our scholars who have literary tastes, because their intimacy with books will sufficiently accomplish them in spelling. So let us have done forever with this baseless pretence.

After these explanations of the practical value of the art of spelling, I ask: What method shall our scholars pursue to acquire it? It seems clear to me that preference is to be given by all means, to the plan of confining their exercises in the study to the words they may encounter in their ordinary text-books. For then the words they learn will mainly be such as they are likely to need in ordinary life; and, what is of vital consequence, intelligence will be associated with them, making them truly symbols of thought. I urge our teachers to give careful heed to this suggestion. More and more as the defects in our American system of grammar-school instruction open upon me, and chief among them is found to be neglect of due attention to the study of language, I feel that every other branch should be made as far as possible to lend aid to this, and especially one so kindred as spelling.

But the words selected for practice must systematically be

subjected to the written process. Written work in all the relations of study is the surest channel to accurate and lasting attainment.

Before I dismiss this topic, let me make one important suggestion, which will prove of equal value in other connections. The preceding discussion was prompted, in part, by the fact that the last entering class of the High School did not spell, in their dictation exercises in that school, to the satisfaction of their teachers; whereupon some of the Grammar School teachers, instantly discrediting their former method of spelling from the reading books, went back to the discarded plan of drilling on the nonsense columns of the speller. They were hasty. They were unphilosophical. The High School teachers, without doubt, dictated passages containing words which had not occurred in the reading lessons of the scholars when in the Grammar Schools, and which, therefore, they were not to be expected to know how to spell. It normally pertains to our late method of teaching this branch, that words unknown before will occur at every step of progress, and are then to be learned; and it is not discreditable in the least, that a knowledge of them should not have been previously acquired. The Grammar School teachers should not have been disquieted in the least.

We must all be thoughtfully prepared to bring our expectations into correspondence with our principles and methods, else we shall be kept in a ceaseless turmoil, and never carry firmly and successfully forward any measures of reform. That very word "reform" presupposes the adoption of systems and methods which set at naught old traditions and prejudices, and necessitate new criteria of progress and success. Our work, when conformed to new principles, will fail of course to answer some of the peculiar requisitions of the old. What of that? Clear and firm in our well-considered convictions, we shall be as prepared to fail in some directions, as we shall be to succeed in others. I trust that no changes will ever be decreed among us, under the semblance of reforms, which we can not demonstrate to be worthy of the name; and our teachers,—not slavishly and unintelligently performing their prescribed work, merely because it is prescribed, thus placing themselves at the mercy of every critic who inspects it, and ready to swing back and forth, unsettled, between opposing systems,—but fully investigating and understanding the principles involved in that work and therefore able to explain and defend it, must each and all strive

in good faith and with resolute purpose, to test our principles by their intelligent experiments, and thus aid to solve triumphantly the vexed problem of grammar school education.—HENRY F. HARRINGTON, *Supt. Schools, New Bedford, Mass.*

ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Regarding oral instruction there are three sentiments extant: the one advocated by the eager enthusiast, whose earnestness is only surpassed by his short-sightedness, when he cries "away with text-books"; the other extreme is represented by the fossilized veteran who raises his eyes in holy horror at the noisy outcry of the wild enthusiast—and, indeed, well he may; but, in addition thereto, he decries and condemns all oral instruction as a vain attempt at innovation upon the ancient banner-motto, "No royal road to learning."

While the short-sighted enthusiast and the fossilized veteran are diametrically opposed to each other, each is equally distant from the happy mean where oral instruction and the text-book are nicely adjusted the one to the other, and proved to be correlative forces in the educational world.

The question is not, Shall we use the text-book or not? but, Do we comprehend the character of the youthful mind? the relation which one power bears to another? the natural order of their development? the means adapted to their strengthening? and, knowing all this, have we the skill to adapt means to an end? to select wholesome, nutritious food for the mental plantlets committed to our care? so to direct each impulse of these germinating powers that their every act will invigorate, strengthen, and encourage to continued effort? When we assign a lesson in spelling, in arithmetic, in geography, in grammar, geometry, philosophy, and descending the scale even to the little primary tables in number,—do we know to just which powers of the mind the work addresses itself? and are we so *practically* familiar with the science of mind that we *know* whether or not our pupils possess sufficient strength of each of these powers to grasp and comprehend the *thought* that is clothed for them in the words of either the teacher or the text-book? Have we so studied to analyze, to trace cause and effect,

that we can tell by the expression of the face, by the tone of the voice, by the whole bearing and manner of the pupil at recitation, whether he has made the *thought* his own, or has simply stored *words?*

Who ever heard of a teacher's examination conducted upon any such basis? Not thus are we measured. But can you define every part of speech, give every rule of syntax and every exception under every rule, and analyze and parse every sentence in the Fourth Reader or Young's Night Thoughts? Can you perform any example in arithmetic at a moment's notice? Can you mention sixteen bays off the eastern coast of the United States, twelve capes projecting into the Arctic Ocean, locate ten cities in Africa, name all the islands in the Indian Ocean? Well, here is our course of study, which decrees that the pupils must come into possession of a certain number of facts in a limited time We will give you a trial. If at the end of your probation your pupils can pass examination—that is, give evidence of having been drilled to think, look, and move by the square-rule and plumb-line,—in fact, if you have been able to tone down their natural freshness and activity into automatic order, and said automatons can glibly tell every thing you have told them —provided you have succeeded in telling them enough—you will be considered *qualified.*

The teacher thus placed—he may or may not perceive the error—anxious to give satisfaction, realizing that he is expected to make memories to order and fill them with knowledge in an incredibly short space of time, labors for the desired result. "Teaching young ideas to shoot"! Well, it may be, but in such case the word "shoot" must be translated by some other term than "germinate." He is merely shooting abstract facts *at* "young ideas"; thus, in nine cases out of ten, checking all natural outgrowth, engendering distaste for study and disinclination for individual mental exertion.

Or, the applicant for a certificate appears before the county superintendent, and if, on examination, he shows a fair knowledge of the subjects which the law of the state specifies, the certificate must be granted, although the examiner *knows* that the would-be teacher has no knowledge of that on which he is to act, no theory and art of teaching as a developing, drawing-out process.

Can these things *be*, and those who aspire to be numbered among the wise and prudent among us devote their energies to

arguing the *surface* question—oral instruction versus text-book? As to whether we use, exclusively, oral instruction or the text-book, or both combined, is simply a question of *means*, which adjusts itself, in every mind wherein the thorough comprehension of the *highest object to be attained* occupies the corresponding scale of the balance. Down deep in the underlying strata are the questions which are of *vital* importance. Shall we, from lack of earnestness of purpose, suffer them to lie dormant? or when some delver, more zealous than ourselves, holds one up for our inspection, shall we give it feeble welcome—or, at most, that faint praise that is worse than condemnation—because the *exterior* does not commend itself to our fancy? How many diamonds do we thus consign to the dust-heap? how many angels do we bid depart from our door? how many souls do we dwarf for eternity?

Oral instruction means simply the application in the school-room of that which has been *Nature's* method of procedure ever since the creation of mind: first, ideas; then, characters to represent them. The much-abused term "object teaching", or "illustrative teaching', stands as the representative of a powerful educational force; but we too often fail to investigate closely enough to recognize the broad basis upon which it is founded. We fail to catch the *philosophy* of the system: hence arises the perversion of an invaluable power for mental development; or, on the other hand, we condemn it, unconsciously ignorant that the beam which we contemptuously ignore is a mote in our own eye.

In Appleton's Educational Record for 1871, I find an article entitled "How to teach Grammar." The editor kindly informs us that the author is a veteran who has had great success in teaching grammar, and the writer stamps himself as a fossil when he says: "Our fathers learned grammar from text-books, and so can our children. Irving and Everett and Prescott made tolerable grammarians, and yet they learned grammar from text-books."

I suspect, if we were to enter Mr. Veteran's home, one of the cold winter evenings, we should find it illuminated by tallow-dips, and himself rejoicing in the possession of a wide-mouthed chimney—extending from cellar to garret, the broad hearth garnished with ancient andirons, and the dusky kettle suspended by a hook above the huge burning logs. His ancestors flourished and grew strong amid such surroundings, and his children

can do the same; therefore, he complacently ignores all modern improvements.

Mr. Veteran, *must* we eat with two-tined forks because our fathers did? Because Irving and Everett and Prescott, men of superior minds and earnestness of purpose, were able to penetrate the accumulation of words, and, by the eye of faith, catching a glimpse of the life beneath, perseveringly battle through the darkness and come out "tolerable grammarians", must all generations of children be subjected to the same discouraging process? Because kerosene oil and illuminating gas were unknown when the fathers traveled the dark highway of school-days, must the children be deprived of having that same highway lighted by rays from the great educational head-light—illustrative teaching? Because lanterns were uninvented in the days of the fathers, must the children be denied the advantages of lighting and guiding themselves, each with his own individual lantern—his quickened perceptives?

Mr. Veteran ostensibly accords a secondary value to oral instruction; but the very manner in which he speaks of the whole subject proves him to be ignorant of the foundation-principles which underlie the whole structure, and without which there can be no *true* teaching.

That is an exceedingly narrow view of oral instruction which discovers nothing in it but map-drawing, blackboard exercises, memorizing facts about objects, extemporaneous arithmetical work, and "chance-inspiration-of-the-moment" exercises. May the day hasten its coming, when it may be said of all who entertain *such* ideas of the "improved methods of teaching"—they have left the profession for the profession's good. Such cumberers of the ground are hindering the cause of human progress in its most vital point.

Because success, according to a certain standard, has been accorded to us or arrogated by us, shall we look upon all methods deviating essentially from our own as unwarranted innovations upon time-honored customs, consequently unworthy of an earnest, thorough investigation? May not our standard be faulty, even though it has been indorsed by wise men? Can we claim infallibility to warrant us in taking a positive stand *against* ideas and methods which have also found warm advocates among wise men, simply because *we* dot at first see the reasons? May not our attempts at reasoning be superficial, consequently our conclusions drawn from wrong premises?

But the withered, mouldy, worm-eaten kernel of this educational nut, which Mr. Veteran has cracked for us and Mr. Editor has industriously circulated among us, lies in the words—referring to the *impracticability* of oral instruction—"It won't work. In the first place, the teachers throughout the length and breadth of the land are not all Pestalozzis, and have not the ability necessary for such instruction. Secondly, if they had, they might not be willing to devote their hard-earned leisure hours to the working-up of such a course." There it lies—the worm *selfishness* coiled at the heart. Alas! it is too true—we are *not* all Pestalozzis. We have not all that self-sacrificing purpose which, in striving to infuse its own heart into the great heart of humanity, stops not in the outer court, but penetrates beyond the veil, and thus *grows* to a glorious comprehension of the teacher's highest art. Self-abnegation was the secret of Pestalozzi's power; it is the secret of all power, and brings with it a recompense infinitely more restful than can ever come to us by tenaciously clinging to the so-called "hard-earned leisure hours." Let us renouce *self*; and thus infolded in the Pestalozzian mantle, words and forms and methods will become translated for us, and even the meanest ability will find that it has, at least, two mites to contribute to the world's great need.

I protest as earnestly as does Mr. Veteran against ignoring the collected wisdom of years of mental labor which the oral fanatic would ruthlessly condemn. It is not that we need text-books less, but that we know how to use them better. Perhaps I can best illustrate my idea by referring to an article about Teaching History, in the *Illinois Teacher* for November, 1871, written by Mary Ashmun (a lady with whom I have not the slightest acquaintance except through her writings in the *Teacher*). Here we have an illustration of that *real* teaching which quickens every fibre of the mental structure. The Franco-Prussian War was the absorbing topic of the day when the class were to commence general history. This, then, is taken as the basis of the work. The first requirement is the outlining of the maps of the two countries upon the board. In connection with this work, the pupils are incited to glean from the newspapers, illustrated papers, and such other sources of information as are within their reach, facts relative to persons and places connected with the subject, meanwhile locating all important places upon their maps. Special topics are assigned to individual pupils; as, the ostensible cause of the war, descrip-

tion of new weapons of war, characters of prominent individuals, and the like. Live interest thus awakened, and an impulse given to individual investigation, there is aroused a curiosity to know more about these things. As they accumulate items from day to day, they discover that the causes of these events extend back—back into the past; new characters, new scenes, and new combinations of circumstances are constantly arising. Leading them *now* to their text-books, they are ready to feed themselves —to cull and glean with whetted appetites. The writer says: "I think we spent more than a week upon these preliminary topics, before we looked at our text-books." Then continued the backward study, with the contemporaneous history—the work, as it advanced, being interspersed with essays, orations, declamations, and reference to poems bearing upon the subjects of their study. Thus, incidentally, was their attention drawn to the literature and authors of the various periods.

Now let the thoughtful teacher review all these steps, and ask himself, What powers in the pupils were called into action by even the *simplest minutiæ* of these requirements? What bearing will this activity have upon their future mental growth and consequent accretions of knowledge?

It is just such *reality* to *all* the work of the school-room—grammar, mathematics, the languages, all—that oral instruction is designed to produce; if it fail, it is the fault of the instructor, not of the principles.—Miss A. G. Paddock *in Illinois Teacher.*

COMPOSITION WRITING.

I remember with what delight our class was fairly introduced to the subject of composition writing, and now that my school going is over, I wonder at the horror generated in some modern pupils by the very word composition. I sincerely pity both the children inflicted and the teacher who inflicts.

I would gladly photograph our happy thrills, and the masterly skill and tact of our instructress, who used to stand before our mixed country school, and, slowly drawing from her desk a well-worn volume, "A Book of Nature", would say: "We will omit writing our copies to-day, and I will read something you will like to hear." Then, when every desk was cleared and every child in position, such strange wonderful worlds would be shown us!

Sometimes we went with the author and reader to a north land, and became acquainted with the funny little people in fur garments, who in the short summers hastened to lay up stores of skins, flesh, and blubber, that were to warm and feed them during the long winters, when the only light came from the stars and moon, that, in their silver way, tried to make up for the golden rays of the sun. We learned to love the deer and dogs that were a wealth we could well appreciate. The teacher would lead us to recall Northern Lights we had seen, and then read of those grander fires that are marshaled in those cold skies.

Again, we would live on the burning desert; strike tent with the Arab; see the quick-scented camel snuff water from afar; feel a thrill of gratitude and wonder that even this sandy sea had been furnished with its living "*ship*"; bow before the deadly blast of the Simoon; and rejoice to have our horizon's circle broken by dim outlines of palm trees that rose from some glad oasis.

Sometimes leaving man and his ways, we went to Nature's lesser life. From the bee we learned industry and wisdom. Diagrams on the blackboard showed how strength, material, and space are beautifully economized in the comb. When we recalled the fact that young bees have just as much skill as the old, we understood God's great gift, *instinct*, to his lower creatures. Almost fearful was the moral lesson we drew from the fate of the poor drones, whose "room was worth more than their company" because they did not work.

As the teacher read paragraph after paragraph, we were made to give additional facts. When the reading was over, we *all* took our slates and began to reproduce what we had heard.

As we wrote the teacher passed among us, pointing out our mistakes, encouraging us to complete statements, and showing us how our matter could be better arranged. The older pupils would have full slates and the younger a few sentences. As a conclusion, some members of each class were called upon to read their exercises. We all went at this work gladly, because we had ideas we longed to express. Each was axious to remember as much as possible, so attention was thoroughly disciplined while the reading was going on.

But sometimes the ideas for our descriptious came to us from *real things*, not through the agency of words. We were so fortunate as to have a school-house in the midst of a seven acre lot. To us belonged rocks, trees, shady nooks, moss-carpeted, sunny

southern slopes, and a brook. In early spring, the wild flowers came to us. The knowing ones soon found the favorite haunts of violets, spring beauties, anemones, and the lovely liver leaf. The dandelions had such a free and easy way with them that they were found without search. Of course, the teacher's hand became a kind of bank in which we deposited our treasures, which yielded a splendid interest as they smiled down upon us during our study hours from all sorts of vases.

As we grew up into the love of flowers, it was easy for our teacher to lead us to tell her on paper how we came to find the first spring beauty, and in what places the anemones love to grow. With the sights of three or four springs for our teachers, we thought it a pity if we did not know *all about it.* So with the memory of all sorts of woody sounds and smells, we went to our tasks. The long words were easiest to spell; for, as a preparation for this very exercise, the teacher used frequently to send us out among the trees and flowers to make lists of words for our next spelling lesson. We would hunt up the orthography in the dictionary which we were early taught to use. Thus in our minds was the *raw material*, and the work of manufacturing it into some pleasing form was never thought drudgery.

Over the desk was a crayon sketch of a pretty girl. The younger children would be questioned about the different features and what they expressed. By a kind of orderly summing up, they would be prepared to tell on paper about the "Little Girl."

I remember what a "new birth" our little geographies received—geographies so worn, *looked* through and "*gone* through" so many times, that we thought not one bit of sweet juice could be squeezed out by ever so hard pressing. And yet this teacher, during one of the first recitations we gave her in this study, made a picture which we had seen a thousand times, and which had been dumb to our dull ears, glow with beauty and speak a strange fascinating language. Then I knew I was being led along a pleasant road, I did not know *how*, but since, recalling the pleasure, I have been able to see what motive power impelled us. A few brisk questions led us to name all the objects in the picture, and then their relations to each other. Then we observed their properties, and in our minds thought out the real scene of which we had the representation. By brisk, vivid word-painting, the teacher would add any bits of coloring or

form necessary to make a *complete whole.* As we were brought into sympathy with the work, we were able to help it on.

The picture was a Brazilian forest. I can see it now. There were only a few trees, vines, and birds; but that teacher made it expand under our eyes, till acres of luxuriant foliage opened before us, gorgeous birds flitted about, tropical blossoms swayed from clinging vines, their brilliancy unrivaled, but nearly equaled by those winged flowers, the butterflies. The Victoria Regia floated in royal state on the surface of some slow stream, her great white petals and golden center compelling us to crown her "Queen of Water Lilies." We listened to hear the hum of the insect world, and grew almost nervous fearing we should hear the dreaded hiss or feel the cold slime of some horrible reptile. We imagined we were genuine travelers—and what traveler is not willing to take admiring listeners on word journeys? We were delighted to do so, when, as a review, the teacher asked us to tell her all we had talked about.

In this way our old geographies became *illuminated* volumes. Thus writing was pleasant to us little fellows, because the idea of composition was charmingly developed without any special effort being made to apply the term, which, in too many cases, is the synonym of all that is unpleasant.

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DR. LEIGH'S METHOD IN THE BOSTON SCHOOLS.

In my last report I stated that this method was in successful use in the Primary Schools of eleven districts. During the last year it has been introduced into some other districts. This method consists in the use of reading books for beginners, printed in what is called "pronouncing type." The Roman letters are modified to indicate their different sounds. By this method, beginners in reading are not taught the names of the letters at first; they are taught only the sounds. Dr. Leigh has devoted himself for many years to the invention and development of this method, with a patience and perseverance worthy of all praise.

For several years it has been optional with the District Committees to adopt this system or not. Its success, where it has been used, has been so decided, that it seems desirable that it should be made obligatory in all the districts.

The following points, which were drawn up by the author of ıe system, will serve, not only as a guide in investigating the ɔsults of the use of the method, but also hints which may be ırned to good account by the teachers who use it:

"In all the inquiries into the results of the use of Pronouncing Orthography the Boston schools, let me ask attention to the following points:

1. The facility with which the pupils learn the phonic letters and their ıunds, as compared with the ordinary learning of the letters of the alphabet ıd their names.
2. The interest which the pupils take in learning and practising the sounds.
3. The interest they take in spelling by sound, and in finding out the spoken ords from the sound of the letters, and the advantage of this.
4. That they learn *all* the sounds.
5. How well they spell by sound.
6. Their rapid progress in learning to read.
7. Their correct and distinct pronunciation.
8. How *soon* they may be taught to read fluently and naturally.
9. That in learning to read in this print, they are learning to read in com- ıon print; there is really no *transition* to make.
10. The correction of foreign brogue, accent, and bad pronunciation.
11. The distinct utterance of every sound; the correction of *careless* ıtterance.
12. The cultivation of self-reliance, and self help. The pupils can *do* and *udy* themselves, and not look to and lean on the teacher.
13. The cultivation of the eye and ear in discriminating the various forms ıd sounds of the letters and the habit and power of observation thus acquired, ith their future influence, extending, as it must, to all their future reading, riting, and spelling.
14. The cultivation of the vocal organs by this constant practice and drill.
15. The training of the mind to order, regularity, consistency, truthfulness ı school, and in books, such as the child meets with in nature out of-doors.
16. The importance of the immense saving of time (doing two years' work ı one), especially to those children who, in Boston, have but four or five ɜars' schooling, and in most cities and towns but two or three.
17. The *uniformity* of these results in all the schools, here and elsewhere, here this print has been used, and the very strong and decided testimony of ost, if not all of the teachers.
18. The difficulties and objections have been only in anticipation, and have ınished before experience. Teachers who began with reluctance and doubt, ıve uniformly succeeded before reaching the end of the primer, and have be- ıme decidedly in favor of the method.
19. That these are the results of several years' experience, in various parts the country, with all sorts of teachers, in several thousands of schools, and at as yet I know of not one real exception.
20. That these results have been obtained under many disadvantages. he print and the method were both new to the teacher; the books used were e old books, merely printed in the new type, and were not prepared and ar- ıged in progressive lessons suited to the new print and method. The acher had no minute and special directions, and guides in teaching, but each as left mainly to her own wit and the blackboard. Experience too, has ıown that, in some respects, the suggestions made by me to the teachers and ıe ways of teaching indicated, were not so good as has since been found out. 'ith increased facilities and advantages of so many years' experience by so ıany excellent teachers, it is certain that very much better results will be ɜcured, than even the remarkable ones already reported."—*Supt.* PHILBRICK, ı *Semi Annual Report*, 1872.

Editorial Department.

—— The opening contribution in this number discusses one of the most important educational questions of the day. The committing of the teacher's office in public schools exclusively to women, involves grave consequences. It is not enough if experience shows that, with like preparation, women teach and govern as well as men. There are other questions which need careful consideration, and first among these is the influence of an exclusive feminine training on the character of the young. If the statements of Dr. Mayo on this point are true, they constitute a fatal objection to the new movement. We do not know to what extent these statements are based on accurate and wide observation, but they are certainly in harmony with the predictions of *a priori* reasoning. One of the most accomplished and successful lady superintendents in Ohio recently declined a reëlection because the position was too severe a tax upon her health, and, as she told us, because she was convinced that the boys, especially, need a gentleman's influence. "I can point them," she said, "to noble men as examples for imitation, but what they greatly need is the influence of daily personal contact with a noble man." We recently discussed the effect of the exclusive employment of female teachers upon the interests of teaching *as a profession*. The fact that but few women make teaching a life business, a profession, makes the retaining of men in the teacher's office necessary to secure an adequate corps of professional teachers—one great need of American schools. The great argument for the exclusive employment of women in our schools is its *economy*. First-class female teachers can be secured for much less salary than second-class male teachers. Women can be employed at $1000 to take the positions of men who demand $2000, and when men are excluded the salaries are, of course, graded down to the market value of woman's services. The exclusion of male teachers from our schools does not increase woman's wages, and hence the few women competent to fill the leading positions in the schools are financially interested in the keeping of these positions open to men. This will alone enable them to secure man's pay.

—— At the late meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association, there was an interesting discussion on the amount of study which should be required of pupils. There was a general agreement that study itself is not injurious to health, that few children are injured by "too much thinking", but, at the same time, teachers were strongly urged to be careful not to overtask their pupils with too many lessons. There seemed to be a general acquiescence in the statement that the pupils in our high schools should not be required to prepare more than one lesson daily out of school hours. Attention was also called to the fact that more injury to health results from the *kind* than from the *amount* of study.

hile natural and joyous thinking is healthful, the nervous effort to cram for ecitations is as detrimental to health as it is destructive of good scholarship. wo hours' hard study on an interesting lesson, attended with thought and nastery, is less exhausting than an hour's nervous fussing over a lesson that neither interests nor secures earnest thought. What our pupils need is more real study and less superficial skimming and cramming. We believe that study is conducive to health, but much depends on its *conditions* and *amount.* Most pupils who are required to prepare two and three lessons out of school, bring to the task a nervous anxiety which forbids clear thinking and undermines physical vigor. But it is not enough that teachers be careful not to overtask their pupils. They should aim to increase their health and physical vigor. More attention should be given to ventilation, temperature, posture, and other hygienic conditions, and there should be daily attention to physical training, including proper breathing, vocalization, etc. Scholarship secured at the sacrifice of health, is very dearly bought. Much that is said respecting "the slaughter of the innocents" in our schools, is both untrue and mischievous. The evils complained of are largely due, as one of our correspondents claims, to the home life of the young, and the sooner it is known that society and the family sin against the health of children, as well as the school, the sooner will needed reforms be instituted.

—While much is said respecting the overtasking of the pupils in our schools, little is said in behalf of the overworked teachers. The great majority of the lady teachers we recently met at Put-in Bay, bore the unmistakable evidence of overwork, and a considerable number will need more than their long vacation to prepare them for the exhausting labors of another year. In many instances this excessive physical strain is doubtless due to the adoption of new methods of teaching and the reconstruction of the courses of study. No one who has tried the experiment, needs be told that four hours of the kind of teaching now demanded, is more exhausting than six hours under the old text-book regime, and especially is this true of teachers who are not familiar with the new methods. The introduction of the elements of botany and physics and the amount of oral instruction required put no little preparation on the untrained teacher, and monthly written examinations, with their huge piles papers to be read and corrected, and the making out of weekly reports of tendance and tardiness, certainly leave few spare hours. To all this society ds its inexorable demands, and many a jaded lady teacher is obliged to eke t her scanty salary and make ends meet by doing her own sewing. Is it any nder that so many of the young girls who, without any special preparation, sume these exhausting duties, lose the freshness of their youth in three or ur years of teaching? It is true that this evil of overwork will be much ssened when teachers become familiar with their duties, but the practical fficulty is, that, when the present female teachers have learned their business, ost of them will marry, leaving their places to be filled largely by recruits. not too much demanded of our lady teachers? Their willingness to do all at is required and even to fill the places hitherto occupied by men, does not

answer this inquiry. Neither the public treasury nor the public good ought to demand of them the sacrifice of health.

—— HENRY W. SAGE, of Brooklyn, one of the trustees of Cornell University, offered last year to donate $250,000 to the institution on condition that instruction shall be offered to young women "as broad and thorough as that now afforded to young men." The proposal was referred to a committee, who at once proceeded to give the subject due examination. The result is embodied in a printed report of forty pages, signed by Pres. White in behalf of a majority of the committee. The report states that the committee did not consult the authorities of colleges which have never tried coëducation, and theoretical views, on both sides, were discarded. Correspondence was had with persons in various parts of the country, who could give facts and reasoning based on actual experience in academies, normal schools, or colleges. A subordinate committee, consisting of Messrs. White and Sage, was appointed to visit the leading colleges and universities which are attended by both sexes. The committee visited Oberlin College and Antioch College, Ohio, Michigan University, Northwestern University, and the Illinois Industrial University. Both the testimony of experience and the investigations of the committee agree in the conclusion that the system of coëducation has worked well, and the committee failed to find one objection to it in practice. Its effects on both the young men and the young women are beneficial, and the facts indicate that there is no loss in scholarship. "The young women are at least the equals of the young men in collegiate studies", while their "conscientiousness" in study elevates the general tone of scholarship. Facts are given showing that the health of young women does not suffer from collegiate study more than that of young men. In accordance with the recommendation of the committee, Mr. Sage's proposal has been accepted, and the doors of Cornell thrown open to women. A large building for their accommodation is in process of erection. The manner in which the Cornell committee conducted its investigations is certainly commendable, and we are glad to see that the Board of Overseers of Harvard has also appointed a committee to examine and report upon the system by an actual observation of its workings.

—— NEAR the close of the last session of Congress, a bill to establish a National University was introduced into the Senate by Mr. Sawyer, and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor. The object of the bill, as stated in the preamble, is to found "a university so comprehensive in plan as to include every department of learning, so high as to embrace the limits of human knowledge, so national in aim as to promote concord among the people of all sections, and so related to other institutions as to promote their efficiency and with them form a complete system of American education." The bill was prepared by Dr. J. W. Hoyt, of Wisconsin, chairman of the committee on a National University, appointed by the National Educational Association at the meeting held in St. Louis. It is the result of a most thorough examination of

the subject, in all its bearings, and of a careful comparison of the views and suggestions of the members of the committee and many other competent persons, to whom the original draft of the bill was submitted for criticism. The provisions for the organization and management of the University effectually protect it from political or sectarian interference and control, and no party or administration will be able to "run" it. Thus the chief objection to the founding of such an institution by Congress is obviated. The initial endowment is an appropriation by Congress of twenty millions of dollars, in the form of a perpetual registered certificate of the United States, bearing five per cent. interest, to be paid quarterly on the order of the board of regents. It is also provided that chairs or faculties in any department of learning, or in the support of any principles of truth, may be endowed by gift, devise, or bequest, and the parties endowing the same shall have the privilege, subject to the approval of the board of regents and council of education, to determine the character of the instruction and the persons by whom such instruction shall be given. The sum necessary to endow a chair is fixed at not less than $100,000. It is expected that this provision will secure an adequate and increasing endowment. The bill provides for the organization of twenty two faculties, and others may be added. We trust that this great measure will have the hearty support of all friends of higher education. The institution is designed to supplement and crown our present collegiate system.

THE SPELLING QUESTION.

We have lately published several articles on the teaching of spelling, which agree in the positions that the spelling of words should be learned in connection with their use and after their meaning is understood. It is evident that these principles, so ably stated and defended in the article in this number, copied from Supt. Harrington's report, rule out the time-honored spelling book drills which have long characterized American schools. These spelling exercises have, as a general rule, ignored both the use and the meaning of the words which make up what have been called the "nonsense columns." It is probable that nine-tenths of American pupils have no idea of the meaning of one-half the words in their spelling lessons, and more than one-half of these words are never used by most pupils outside of the spelling drill. As a means of uniting the use, meaning, and orthography of words, it is proposed to limit the spelling drill to the words occurring in the reading lessons and in the other exercises of the school—the very words which are most likely to be used in after life. It is claimed that the mastery of these words, as they are met with and used, not only makes good spellers, within the limits of utility, but it begets the habit of noticing the orthography of every new word met with in subsequent reading.

This new method of teaching spelling has already been tested in thousands of schools, and the results justify the theory on which it is based. Pupils who thoroughly master the orthography of all words occurring in their school exer-

cises, spell better than those whose spelling drills are chiefly confined to the word-columns of the spelling book. We are aware that this statement will be questioned by some, but an examination of the letters and other written exercises of the two classes of pupils, certainly a fair and practical test, will show that it is true. The reasons are obvious. The words most likely to be misspelled in ordinary composition, occur *many times* in the reading lessons, while they occur but *once* in the spelling book, and the whole spelling drill is confined to these more common words. The many strange and, to the pupil, unmeaning words in the speller tax both his time and attention, often to the neglect of words in more common use. Many a child that can spell "plenipotentiary" and "philoprogenitiveness", will misspell "until" and "very." We once heard the editor of a leading daily paper in Ohio denounce the "modern school" for its failure to teach spelling. As an illustration of this failure, he cited the bad spelling of the lawyers, judges, and politicians whose manuscripts were subjected to his editorial revision. He was reminded that these were not the representatives of the modern school; that they learned to spell under the old regime.

The opinion is quite prevalent that there has been a noticeable decline in spelling in the past twenty years. Whether this be true or not, we can not say. We have not the necessary data for a judgment, but we are satisfied that such a decline, if it exists, is due to the *neglect* of spelling, and not to the adoption of more rational methods of teaching it. It is easy to see how less attention may be given to spelling in our schools than formerly. Forty years ago spelling was really the only subject that had the benefit of thorough class drills. The pupils "went over" the reading lessons, each reading a verse in turn, and each ciphered "on his own hook;" But large classes were formed in spelling, and, when the time for the exercise came, the pupils "toed the mark", and were put through something like a thorough drill. Special hours were also set apart for "spelling down", and several evenings each winter term were devoted to "spelling schools." Spelling was the great exercise, the hobby, and many a youth was fired with a worthy ambition to be able to spell all the words in Webster's Spelling-Book. The classification of pupils in arithmetic, geography, and English grammar, and the introduction of new studies and exercises, have doubtless reduced both the time and attention given to spelling. It is no longer the school hobby—we wish all hobbies were as worthy of being ridden—and in many schools it may not receive due attention. It is also possible that the advocacy of better methods of teaching spelling has caused many teachers to neglect the subject. This evil seems to attend all reforms in teaching. A considerable class of teachers never get beyond the intellectual belief that there is a better way. This causes them to be indifferent in their use of old methods, while the better ones are not put in practice. Moreover, teachers, as a class, are apt to neglect those branches which they feel they can not teach well. Whatever may be the cause, spelling is doubtless sadly neglected in many schools, and against this neglect there should be an earnest and universal protest.

It must also be conceded that it is easier to teach spelling from a speller than a reader. The words are not only selected for the teacher, but they are

ranged in a convenient form for pronouncing. There is also some advange in the grouping and classification of the words. It may also be true that pelling is less liable to be neglected when a speller containing a definite numer of words for mastery, is used. This necessitates a separate and regular xercise, and the progress of the pupils is readily measured. This reason for ıe use of a spelling book is, of course, largely obviated by test examinations ı spelling.

For some fifteen years past, we have advised teachers to use no spelling ooks in their primary classes. For three years, at least, the words in the eading and language lessons should be used for spelling drills, and, after the irst year, at least, we would have the spelling exercise precede the reading. We would also have the pupils spell all new words met with in *all* their lessons, and lists of these words should be made out for drill and review. Not only should there be a regular recitation in spelling daily, but spelling should always be in order. The aim should be to make the pupils familiar with the orthography of every word used by them.

When the third or fourth reader is reached, we would, we think, introduce an elementary spelling book for *additional* drills. It would be no objection to this speller if it should contain only the words actually met with by the pupils in preceding exercises, with such other words in common use as may have been omitted. Such a book would serve an excellent purpose for review and special drills, and the thorough mastery of the two thousand to three thousand words in it, would certainly be a good "start" in spelling. This speller might be succeeded by another containing less common words, with lessons in derivation, and otherwise adapted to more advanced classes. While, therefore, we are not prepared to discard wholly the use of spelling books, we hold that these books should be properly graded, and that they should neither be introduced too early nor used to the neglect of the words occurring in the eading and other lessons. The practice of spelling words as they are used nust be the chief reliance in making practical spellers.

But whatever may be the means or method employed in teaching spelling, nstruction in this branch should be earnest, persistent, and thorough, specially in all elementary schools. Childhood is the time to learn spelling, nd the pupil that reaches his twelfth year unable to spell the words in his wn vocabulary, will, as a general rule, never be a good speller. It is true, as [r. Harrington claims, that persons of literary tastes are constantly learning) spell, but the habit of non-attention to the orthography of words formed in ıildhood, is rarely overcome. It should be the aim of every elementary acher to make her pupils accurate spellers.

THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

At the request of the Japanese Minister at Washington, Prof. D. C. Gilman, f Yale College, prepared a statement of the general features and principles f the systems of public schools, maintained in the several States of the Amer-ıan Union. This statement was revised by a number of the leading educa-

tors of the country, and, in its modified form, it has been formally indorsed by over sixty persons, including the presidents of twenty colleges, and the superintendents of twenty States. We think it will be generally approved by all who are familiar with American schools. The following is the revised statement:

I.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The American people maintain in every State a system of education which begins with the infant or primary school, and goes on to the grammar and high schools. These are called "Public Schools", and are supported chiefly by voluntary taxation, and partly by the income of funds derived from the sale of government lands, or from the gifts of individuals.

II.—THE SYSTEM HAS BEEN TRIED FOR TWO HUNDRED AND FIFTY YEARS.

Their estimate of the value of education is based upon an experience of nearly two centuries and a half, from the earliest settlement of New England, when public schools, high schools, and colleges were established in a region which was almost a wilderness. The general principles then recognized are still approved in the older portions of the country, and are adopted in every new State and Territory which enters the Union.

III.—THE WELL-KNOWN ADVANTAGES OF EDUCATION.

It is universally conceded that a good system of education fosters virtue, truth, submission to authority, enterprise, and thrift, and thereby promotes national prosperity and power; on the other hand, that ignorance tends to laziness, poverty, vice, crime, riot, and consequently to national weakness.

IV.—STATE ACTION INDISPENSABLE.

Universal education can not be secured without aid from the public authorities; or, in other words, the State, for its own protection and progress, should see that public schools are established, in which, at least, the rudiments of an education may be acquired by every boy and girl.

V.—THE SCHOOLS ARE FREE, ARE OPEN TO ALL, AND GIVE MORAL NOT SECTARIAN INSTRUCTION.

The schools thus carried on by the public for the public, are (*a*) free from charges for tuition; (*b*) they are open to children from all classes in society; and (*c*) no attempt is authorized to teach in them the peculiar doctrines of any religious body, though the Bible is generally read in the schools as the basis of morality; and (*d*) the universal virtues, truth, obedience, industry, reverence, patriotism, and unselfishness, are constantly inculcated.

VI.—PRIVATE SCHOOLS ALLOWED AND PROTECTED BY LAW.

While public schools are established everywhere, the government allows the largest liberty to private schools. Individuals, societies, and churches are free to open schools and receive freely all who will come to them, and in the exercise of this right they are assured of the most sacred protection of the laws.

VII.—SPECIAL SCHOOLS FOR SPECIAL CASES.

Special schools for special cases are often provided, particularly in the large towns; for example, evening schools for those who are at work by day; truant schools for unruly and irregular children; normal schools for training the local teachers; high schools for advanced instructions; drawing schools for mechanics; and industrial schools for teaching the elements of useful trades.

VIII.—LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY UNDER STATE SUPERVISION.

In school matters, as in other public business, the responsibilities are distributed and are brought as much as possible to the people. The Federal Government being a Union of many States, leaves to them the control of public instruction. The several States mark out, each for itself, the general principles to be followed, and exercise a general supervision over the workings of the system; subordinate districts or towns determine and carry out the details of the system.

IX.—UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES ESSENTIAL.

Institutions of the highest class, such as universities, colleges, schools of science, etc., are in a few of the States maintained at public expense; in most they are supported by endowments, under the direction of private corporations which are exempted from taxation. Consequently, where tuition is charged, the rate is always low. They are regarded as essential to the welfare of the land, and are everywhere protected and encouraged by favorable laws and charters.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—— The programme for the meeting of the National Educational Association, to be held in Boston, Aug. 6–8, has met a wide and hearty approval. It includes topics of great importance, and their consideration can not fail to promote the educational interests of the country. There is a prospect of a large attendance, notwithstanding the refusal of all the through railroad lines from the West and South, the Grand Trunk Railway excepted, to make any reduction in their rates. We had the assurance that the Atlantic & Great Western and New York & Erie railways would grant excursion rates, but the arrangement can not be made.——We are informed by the officers of the German American Teachers' Association, which meets at Hoboken, N. J., July 31st, that the exercises of Saturday, Aug. 3d, will be conducted in the English language for the benefit of visitors and invited guests who do not speak German fluently. Several important theses are announced for this English session, and all who may be present, are cordially invited to participate in the same. We hope that a goodly number of the delegates to the Boston meeting will find it convenient to spend Saturday at Hoboken.

Ohio.—The meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association at Put in-Bay, July 2 3, and 4, was a very pleasant occcasion. This delightful locality was selected for the meeting with a view of enabling the members to combine much rational enjoyment with the business of the Association, and all who were present, seemed to enter heartily into this idea. The members, some three hundred in number, were all handsomely entertained at the Put-in-Bay House, and the exercises were held in the large hall, connected with the hotel. This arrangement permitted an economic use of time and opportunities. The programme was so arranged that but one topic was considered each half day, and there were no evening sessions. Our September number will contain the proceedings in full, including the papers and stenographic reports of the discussions, and our readers will be able to judge for themselves respecting the character of the exercises. The papers which we heard, were very good, but the discussions, though earnest and pointed, did not come up to the known ability of the Association. It was unanimously voted to hold the next meeting at Put-in Bay, and the State Teachers' Association of Michigan was cordially invited to meet with the Ohio Association. We hope that the teachers of the two States will come together a thousand strong. Put-in Bay is one of the most enjoyable places of resort in the country. The bay, lying between Put-in-Bay and Gibraltar islands, is a beautiful sheet of water, and the facilities for bathing, fishing, and boating are excellent.

Otterbein University.—In February, 1870, the principal college building was destroyed by fire, but the friends of Otterbein, instead of repining at their loss, entered at once upon the task of rebuilding. The work was prosecuted with rare energy and perseverance, and, in less than two years, one of the most beautiful and convenient college edifices in the West stood in the place of the one so recently destroyed. A cut of this fine building adorns our ad-

vertising pages this month. Otterbein University is located at Westerville, Ohio, twelve miles north of Columbus, and three miles from Westerville Station on the C. C. C. & I. railroad, from whence it is reached by hack in thirty minutes. The institution early adopted the system of coëducation, and the practical working of the plan has demonstrated its wisdom. The facilities for instruction have been largely increased, and the arrangements are such as to meet the wants of different classes of students. The expenses are very low. Westerville has an excellent record on the temperance question, and the absence of liquor shops and other resorts of vice removes many temptations to which students are often exposed. The town is also pervaded by an active and harmonious religious sentiment. Prof. H. A. Thompson, formerly connected with the faculty of the institution, and subsequently superintendent of the public schools of Troy, Ohio, has been elected president. He will enter upon his duties at the opening of the next term—Aug. 14th.

Steubenville Female Seminary.—This celebrated institution was founded forty-three years ago by the now venerable Dr. Beatty and wife, who, though relieved from its management, are still deeply interested in its welfare, and give its proprietors the benefit of their wise counsel. They began the enterprise in a small room with only seven pupils, and, step by step, they advanced from this small beginning to a success rarely attained by private enterprise. The present buildings occupy an entire square on the west bank of the Ohio river, and command a view which Cole, the celebrated artist, delighted to gaze upon and which was in his mind when he painted his "Voyage of Life." The external appearance and internal appointments of the institution are not fully up to the modern standard, but nothing is lacking necessary to make it a pleasant and happy home for the young ladies. Sixteen years ago the seminary passed into the hands of Dr. Reid and his accomplished wife, and its prosperity continues. The attendance was somewhat diminished the past year by the prevalence of small pox in the city, but the enrollment reached 165. We learn from a friend, who was present at the annual examinations, that they were thorough, and were passed by the classes in a very creditable manner. He specially commends the attainments of the young ladies in composition, drawing and painting, and music, both vocal and instrumental. A visit to the institution a few months since enables us to indorse what our correspondent says of Dr. Reid's management and the competency of his corps of teachers. At the close of the year, Dr. Beatty presented diplomas to 17 graduates, making the whole number of graduates 626. It is proposed to have a meeting of the alumni next year.

Ohio Colleges.—Miami University has changed its system of instruction, adopting that of the University of Virginia. The different departments of knowledge are taught in separate schools, and the instruction is given in the form of lectures, with reviews and examinations. The assignment of lessons in text books and the conducting of recitations are both abandoned. Students have the choice of their studies. A. D. Hepburn, Esq., was inaugurated president at the last commencement.——Marietta College graduated seventeen students at the last commencement, the largest class yet graduated, and one

received the degree of bachelor of science, the only case of bestowing this degree is fourteen years. The degree of LL. D. was conferred upon Governor Noyes, and that of D.D. upon Pres. Cutler, of Western Reserve College. The Governor was present at the commencement exercises, and made a fine address to the graduating class. John L. Davis, the valedictorian of the class, was appointed tutor in the academy.——The trustees of Kenyon College are making an effort to increase its endowment. The wealth possessed by its friends ought to make this an easy task. A student's total year's expenses may, with strict economy, be kept under $260, and, in the opinion of the college authorities, they ought not to exceed $300. Kenyon aims to do thorough work.——At the last commencement of Western Reserve College, Pres. Cutler was formally inaugurated. The progressive spirit of his administration was indicated in the announcement that the college will admit young women who are prepared to enter the regular classes. The financial condition of the college has never been more satisfactory.——Dr. Hosmer has resigned the presidency of Antioch College, to take effect the first of January next, and Prof. Edward Orton, now Assistant State Geologist, has been elected his successor. Dr. Hosmer will retain the chair of Channing Professor of History and Ethics. Prof. Orton is admirably qualified for the position, and his appointment insures the continued and increasing prosperity of the college. The trustees have agreed to offer free tuition to one gentleman and one lady from each of the high schools of the State.

CLEVELAND.—The report of the Board of Education for the school year ending Aug. 31; 1871, came to our table the last week in June. It makes a very favorable exhibit of the condition and progress of the schools, though the statistics lose some interest by the fact that the schools have been in session a year since they were compiled. Supt. Rickoff's report ably discusses a large number of important topics, including school attendance, the "Chicago Rule", which we understand him to disapprove of, German instruction, drawing, women as principals, examinations, reading, arithmetic, spelling, object lessons, and natural science in the grammar schools. The introduction of drawing is recommended as a practical system of instruction is now available, the system introduced into the Boston schools by Mr. Smith, the Director of Art Education in Massachusetts. Mr. Rickoff reports "the continued and even increasing success of the experiment of putting women at the head of all the Grammar and Primary schools." He says the schools are "more efficiently governed and more thoroughly taught than when there was a man at the head of every house." The superiority of women as principals is represented to be quite remarkable, and one reason assigned is the fact, that they do not rely upon physical force. We regret that a want of space this month, forbids a further reference to this very interesting report.

WEST VIRGINIA.--The meeting of the State Teachers' Association at Fairmont, June 25–28, was much more largely attended than any previous session. Wheeling was represented by over fifty teachers. Addresses were delivered by President Lewis, ex-Governor Pierpont, ex-Senator Willey, Pres. Martin, of the State University, Profs. McMechen and Boyd, of Wheeling,

Pres. Pendleton, of Bethany College, and Prof. F. A. Allen, of Pennsylvania. Prof. Allen and Prof. Kidd, of Indiana, were the principal lecturers on professional topics. Prof. Snowden, of Wheeling, gave an experimental lecture in Chemistry, and Prof. A. E. Wardner, of Parkersburg, read an excellent essay on "West Virginia Teachers' Work." The Association concluded to publish an educational journal, to be styled the *West Virginia Teachers' Journal.* It is to be edited by Dr. J. G. Blair, of the State Normal School at Fairmont, and five associate editors. One of the resolutions adopted affirms that the office of State Superintendent of Schools should be filled by an able, efficient, and practical educator. It was earnestly recommended that a teachers' institute should be held in every locality where the number of teachers is sufficient. The session will exert a salutary influence on the educational interests of the State. It was a decided success.

CALIFORNIA.—We are indebted to Hon. John Swett, Deputy Supt. of the Public Schools of San Francisco, for a complete set of the annual examination tests in composition in the six lower grades. They indicate a well-graded course of instruction and drill, without the usual attempt to teach the "Elements" of English grammar. The drill is in practical composition. We are also well pleased with the series of tests in arithmetic.——W. T. Lucky, Principal of the State Normal School, recently sent a circular to the county superintendents and principals of graded schools in the State, making inquiry respecting the success of the normal students in teaching and governing, and the manner in which they compare with other teachers of the same experience. We are in receipt of a circular containing the substance of every letter received. The answers are very favorable, presenting most satisfactory proof of the value of normal training. The State is erecting a fine building at San Jose for the better accommodation of the school.

WISCONSIN.—At the meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held in Madison, July 9-11, a resolution was unanimously adopted "cordially indorsing the plan for a National University as presented in the bill now pending in the Senate of the United States", and earnestly commending the measure to the consideration and support of Senators and Representatives in Congress." It is hoped that other State Associations may take similar action.

——THE July number of the *Kansas Educational Journal* announces respecting the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY and the NATIONAL TEACHER, that "these two very valuable monthlies we suppose have found an unexpected grave", and, after alluding to their large circulation and "good work all over the country", it takes the opportunity "to drop a tear over the grave of our departed companions." We can not guess the motive that prompted such an unjustifiable announcement.

——DR. CALVIN CUTTER, author of the well known series of text books on Physiology, died at his residence in Warren' Mass., June 20, 1872.——Abram Brown has resigned the principalship of the Columbus High School to accept an agency for the publishing house of Clark & Maynard, New York.

BOOK NOTICES.

WORD-BOOK OF ENGLISH SPELLING, Oral and Written. Designed to attain Practical Results in the Acquisition of the Ordinary English Vocabulary, and to serve as an Introduction to Word-Analysis. By WILLIAM SWINTON, A.M. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

WORD-ANALYSIS, a Graded Class-Book of English Derivative Words, with Practical Exercises in Spelling, Analysing, Defining, Synonyms, and the Use of Words. By WILLIAM SWINTON, A.M. New York & Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

The leading idea of the "Word-Book" is to teach the spelling of the ordinary vocabulary used in speaking and writing, and hence it omits many of the "sesquipedalian words" of the old-time spelling-books, and the "long-tailed words in *osity* and *action*." The author has aimed to indicate a method of using the book by a formal division of the lessons into written and oral, and by a division of the work into monthly and yearly sections, with monthly and yearly reviews. These divisions strike us as more formal than useful, since the relative use of oral and written methods, as well as the number of words to be taught in a month, depends on the advancement of the pupils. We do not see that the written lessons—the few composed of sentences excepted—are any better adapted to the written method than the oral lessons. Among the obvious excellent features of the work, we notice the early introduction and distribution of common abbreviations and the given names of persons; the grouping of the names of common objects, and of words used in various trades and professions; lessons composed of various classes of words, including "market" words, colloquial words, geographical names, etc.; and simple lessons in word-analysis, with reference to Saxon and classical roots, prefixes and suffixes. The work is evidently the result of an earnest effort to meet the demands of rational methods of teaching.

The "Word-Analysis" is, we think, more in harmony with the spirit and methods of modern philology than any other school manual on the subject which we have examined. Its methods of word-analysis and definition are clear and simple, and commendable prominence is given to the *use* of knowledge as it is acquired. We like the arrangement of the work. The first part deals exclusively with English primitives and derivatives; the second with Latin derivatives; and the third with Greek derivatives.

THE POPULAR SCIENCE MONTHLY. Conducted by E. L. YOUMANS. Price $5 a year. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This monthly magazine, containing about 125 large octavo pages, has for its leading object the diffusion of a knowledge of science among the people. It gives special prominence to those sciences which are of practical value as a means of improving the condition of man and society, and it earnestly advocates the claims of scientific education. Its scope and character are well indicated by the contents of the August number, just received, which are as follows: I. The August and November Meteors. By Dr. H. Schellen. (Illustrated.) II. Modern Literatures in the Higher Education. By Dr. J. B. Mozley. III. The Nutritive Salts of Food. By Prof. Voit. IV. The Physiology of Sleep. By Dr. B. W. Richardson. (Illustrated.) V. Characteristics of the Calmucks. By J. Kopernicki. (Illustrated.) VI. Balance of Life in the Aquarium. By Shirley Hibbard. VII. Juries, Judges, and Insanity. By Dr Henry Mandsley. VIII. Concerning Corpulence. By Dr. W. J. Youmans. IX. The Study of Physical Science. By Rev. Charles Kingsley. X. Sight and the Visual Organ. By Dr. A. Von Graefe. (Illustrated.) XI. On the Discovery of the Elements. By Prof. Wm. Odling. XII. The Causes of Physical Degeneracy. By

Dr. A K. Gardner. XIII. Sketch of Prof. Gray. (With Portrait.) XIV. Editor's Table: Modern Studies in Education—Anthropology and Ethnology; Literary Notices, and Miscellany. The papers are popular in character without being superficial—a great merit. The leading editorial is an earnest plea for an "educational reform" that will make science the chief and controlling element of culture. The question is viewed largely from the English standpoint.

THE CHILD: Its Nature and Relations; An Elucidation of Froebel's Principles of Education. A Free Rendering of the German of the Baroness Marenholtz-Bulow. Price $1.00. New York: E. Steiger.

This work is doubtless the best elucidation of the principles of the Kindergarten system in the English language. A general idea of its character is indicated by the headings of the nine chapters, to wit: I. The New Education. II. The Child's Being—Its Relation to Nature, Man, and God. III. The Child's Manifestations. IV and V. The Child's Education. VI and VII. Froebel's "Mother Cosseting Songs." VIII. Fundamental Forms. IX. Reading. The Baroness Marenholtz-Bulow was a personal friend and disciple of Froebel and her interpretation and expression of his ideas are very intelligent and felicitous, and Madame Krege's translation is well adapted to American readers. To those who wish to learn both the principles and the practice of the Kindergaten, we commend this work and Dr. Douai's excellent Kindergarten Manual (E. Steiger, New York), containing play songs, drawing-plays, and other Kindergarten exercises.

A TEXT SPELLING-BOOK. For the Use of Advanced Classes. By W. D. HENKLE. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This manual contains two hundred and six lessons of twenty words each, and twenty-nine lessons of dictation exercises. The spelling lessons are chiefly those which the author has used in his own teaching, consisting of difficult words, including many proper names. Those of like pronunciation, but different orthography and meaning, are associated. The last six lessons are composed of words spelled differently by Webster and Worcester, both spellings being given. The dictation exercises give the pronunciation and explanation of many of the proper names, and the lessons are replete with philological and historical information. The book is valuable for spelling tests and reviews in high schools, academies, seminaries, and colleges.

—— THE destruction of the plates of HADLEY'S LESSONS IN LANGUAGE by the great Chicago fire, has resulted in the republication of the work with important revisions and improvements. It is an excellent manual for the primary teacher. Price 60 cts.

—— OUR examination of THALHEIMER'S ANCIENT HISTORY has satisfied us that it is a superior work. We have not space this month to specify its many excellent features.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. By John Rrocklesby, A.M. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1872.

PLANE GEOMETRY. By Thomas Hunter, A.M. New York: Harper & Brothers.

JACKSON'S MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY. By Edward P. Jackson, A.M. Hartford, Ct.: The Stellar Tellurian Manufacturing Company.

KEY TO JACKSON'S CELESTIAL HEMISPHERES. By the same Author and Publishers.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER:

A MONTHLY EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL.

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OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE TWENTY-FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING, HELD AT PUT-IN-BAY, JULY 3D AND 4TH, 1872.

The Association was called to order at 9½ o'clock, Wednesday morning, July 3d, by Hon. W. D. Henkle, of Salem, chairman of the Executive Committee.

Prayer was offered by Rev. O. N. Hartshorn, President of Mt. Union College.

C. L. Hotze, of Cleveland, was chosen assistant secretary. H. M. James, of Cleveland, and A. S. McPherron, of Akron, were appointed assistant railroad secretaries.

On motion of H. B. Furness, of Tiffin, H. B. Furness, R. McMillan, of Youngstown, M. C. Stevens, of Salem, and R. W. Stevenson, of Columbus, were appointed a committee of communication between teachers and those wishing to employ teachers.

On motion of W. D. Henkle, of Salem, W. D. Henkle, John Hancock, of Cincinnati, E. T. Tappan, of Gambier, R. W. Stevenson, of Columbus, and A. B. Johnson, of Avondale, were appointed a committee on nomination of officers for the ensuing year.

On motion of W. D. Henkle, of Salem, H. B. Furness, of Tiffin, J. W. Goodspeed, of Athens, and L. S. Thompson, of Sandusky, were appointed a committee on resolutions.

President Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia, delivered his Inaugural Address. The discussion on the Inaugural was participated in

by Pres. E. T. Tappan, of Gambier; W. S. Furay, correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette*, at Columbus; John Hancock, of Cincinnati; Prof. J. B. Weston, Antioch College, Yellow Springs; Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia; W. Wright, of Rushsylvania; Prof. W. H. G. Adney, of Ohio University, Athens; Prof. John B. Perry, of Oberlin; Pres. O. N. Hartshorn, of Mt. Union College; Pres. J. H. Fairchild, of Oberlin; and L. L. Campbell, of Niles.

On motion of W. Watkins, of Middletown, Samuel Findley, of Akron, and W. W. Ross, of Fremont, were appointed to consider important points in the President's Inaugural Address.

Adjourned till 3 o'clock P.M.

Afternoon Session.

President Ormsby introduced Miss Harriet L. Keeler, assistant superintendent of public instruction in the Cleveland public schools, who presented a report on "*Object Lessons.*"

The discussion of the report was opened by John Hancock, of Cincinnati, and continued by Prof. John B. Perry, of Oberlin, W. Watkins, of Middletown; W. D. Henkle, of Salem, E. E. White, of Columbus, Duane Doty, Supt. Public Schools of Detroit, and J. F. Nichols, President of the Michigan Teachers' Association.

During the discussion, on motion of W. D. Henkle, of Salem, teachers from other States were invited to participate in the deliberations of the Association.

Adjourned till 9½ o'clock, Thursday morning.

Thursday, July 4—Morning Session.

At 9½ o'clock the Association was called to order by the President.

In the absence of Prof. Edward Orton, of Antioch College, Yellow Springs, and W. H. Venable, of Cincinnati, the following programme for the afternoon was agreed upon by the Association, instead of the report on "*Science in Schools*", which was expected: A patriotic oration by John Hancock, of Cincinnati; the reading of the Declaration of Independence by J. C. Ridge, of Cincinnati; and music, to be furnished by T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus.

A motion by W. D. Henkle, of Salem, to hold the next meeting of the Association at Put-in-Bay, was discussed by Rev. O. N. Hartshorn, W. H. Dressler, of Alliance, and finally carried in the affirmative.

On motion of R. W. Stevenson, of Columbus, the Michigan Teachers' Association was cordially invited to meet with us next year at Put-in-Bay.

E. O. Vaile, of Cincinnati, made a report on the "*Number of Studies and Exercises that can be judiciously required of a Pupil in a Public School.*"

The discussion was opened by M. F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, and continued by E. E. White, of Columbus, Prof. Jno. B. Perry, of Oberlin, W. D. Henkle, of Salem, John Hancock, of Cincinnati, O. N. Hartshorn, John Ogden, of Worthington, and R. McMillan, of Youngstown.

W. Watkins, of Middletown, chairman of the committee on the President's Inaugural Address, reported the following resolutions:

1. That some system of popular education is necessary to the existence of a republican form of government; and that no school system can reach and enlighten the masses unless it be made free.
2. The school system is created by the state for purposes of self-preservation, and hence the state must require that the character of the schools be such as shall tend to secure that end.
3. There are national as well as individual habits, and, since the public school is a potent agency in their formation, it would be wise to secure such uniformity in the more important features of public instruction as would tend to produce correct national habits, physical, intellectual, and moral.
4. The cultivation of morality and religion, as well as intelligence, belongs to the public school, since these are essential to the highest manhood and lie at the very foundation of free government.
5. We do not recognize the right of any party, sect, or class to interfere in matters pertaining to the public school; and we believe the use of the Bible in the public school should neither be enforced nor prohibited by state or local enactment.

These resolutions were laid upon the table, after discussion by John Hancock, of Cincinnati, W. H. Dressler, of Alliance, W. S. Furay, of Columbus, E. E. White, of Columbus, and W. D. Henkle, of Salem.

The chairman of the committee on Nominations, W. D. Henkle, of Salem, reported as follows:

President—Ulysses T. Curran, of Cincinnati.

Vice Presidents—Aaron Schuyler, of Berea; John Bolton, of Portsmouth; Harriet L. Keeler, of Cleveland; N. M. McLaughlin, of McConnelsville; A. T. Wiles, of Zanesville.

Recording Secretary—L. S. Thompson, of Sandusky.

Corresponding Secretary—Lewis W. Day, of Cleveland.

Treasurer—A. B. Johnson, of Avondale.

Auditor—E. O. Vaile, of Cincinnati.

Executive Committee—For three years: John Ogden, of Worthington, and H. B Furness, of Tiffin. For two years: T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus, and G. A. Carnahan, of Cincinnati. For one year: M. F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, and E. E. White, of Columbus.

Finance Committee—Abram Brown, of Columbus; S. G. Barnard, of Ravenna; A. S. Moore, of Defiance; W. H. Rayl, of Sandusky; W. S. Wood, of Findlay.

The report was adopted.

On motion of M. F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of the Ohio Teachers' Association be instructed to correspond with the Executive Committee of the Michigan Teachers' Association with a view to arranging such a programme of exercises for the two Associations as shall be mutually profitable and satisfactory to each.

On motion of John Ogden, of Worthington, a committee of three, consisting of John Ogden, John Bolton, of Portsmouth, and John McBurney, of Cambridge, were appointed to report on our EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

Adjourned to meet at 3 o'clock P.M.

Afternoon Session.

The President, from the verandah of the Put-in-Bay House, called the Association to order at 3 o'clock.

After the singing of "*America*" by the Association, J. C. Ridge, of Cincinnati, read the "*Declaration of Independence.*"

The President introduced John Hancock, of Cincinnati, who delivered an eloquent and patriotic address suitable to the occasion.

John Ogden, of Worthington, from the committee on the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, made the following report:

1. *Resolved*, That, in the opinion of this Association, the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, as a literary journal and a faithful exponent of sound educational principles, has our entire confidence.
2. That it should be in the hands of every teacher and school officer in the State.
3. That we, as teachers and friends of education, will do all in our power to increase its circulation, believing that no more efficient means can be employed for the elevation of the members of the profession.

The report was adopted.

H. B. Furness, of Tiffin, from the committee on Resolutions, reported as follows, which was adopted:

1. *Resolved*, That the thanks of this Association are tendered to the proprietors of the "Put-in-Bay House" for the courtesy and generosity with which all our wants and conveniences have been supplied.

2. To the officers of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company for reduction in fare.

3. To the Press of Sandusky and Cincinnati.

4. To the President and other officers of the Association for the able manner in which they have discharged the duties of their several positions.

5 To Messrs. Hancock and Ridge for their patriotic efforts to aid us in commemorating the day we all, as American citizens, "love to celebrate"

W. D. Henkle, of Salem, gave notice that, at the next meeting of the Association, he would move to amend the constitution by organizing departments in the Association.

After singing the Doxology, the Association adjourned.

L. S. THOMPSON,
Recording Secretary.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

BY PRESIDENT GEORGE S. ORMSBY, XENIA, OHIO.

Teachers of Ohio:—

The ground on which we stand is historic. Within sight of this spot was fought the celebrated "Battle of Lake Erie." Here the brave Perry made the laconic report, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours"; and at our feet are the graves of the brave men who fell on that memorable day, "when the stoutest hearts beat quick and the boldest held his breath."

We have assembled, moreover, on this beautiful island of the lake, on the day before the anniversary of American Independence. Proud of our flag, proud of our eagle, emblem bird of liberty, whose home is in the jutty cliffs that border our mighty lakes and rivers; proud of our federal union of states, of our expansive domain, of our free government, under whose benign institutions, humanity can make its most perfect development; in such a place, at such a time, convened by patriotic motives, we may discuss a patriotic theme.

The School and the State.

The American state is founded upon intelligence, morality, and religion. These principles are not like inanimate rocks which constitute the base of the pyramids, against which the storms of fifty centuries have beaten in vain, nor are they like the lifeless foundations of despotic thrones, the cold glitter of royalty, hereditary or divine right, or military power. They are living principles; but, like all other things of created life, they may decay. Living, they send

life, health, and vigor through every fibre of the state; dying, the state itself dies like a tree planted on desert sands.

These principles, or more properly positive forces, for such they are, have their birth, growth, and life for the state in the public school. The state has the control of no other agency that can produce them. The school, then, is to the free state what the heart in healthy action is to the human body, a necessity.

The theme itself is a grand one, and yet I shall not discuss it with any flourish of rhetorical trumpets, but in the language of truth and soberness. I shall attempt to answer, in part, the question, What kind of schools does the state demand?

This question includes all points that may be discussed under the general theme, the grades of schools that should be supported by the people, and the kind and quality of instruction given.

Let the form of the question be understood. It is not asked what kind of schools the people may demand of the state, but what kind of schools may the state command the people to support.

At the threshhold of this discussion we are met with the question, Why should the state educate the people at the public expense? If all the people could be educated without this instrumentality, and the proper equilibrium of mental and moral forces preserved, and the state could have security that those vital forces, essential to free government, could be forever guaranteed, then public schools would not be a necessity. But this can not be done. No instance of general education can be furnished, except it has been provided at the expense of the state.

A tyrannical despotism needs no such system, nor could it endure it. Despotic thrones, based on such vital forces, would be lifted up by them and overturned; but in the American state, where all power and all functions of the government, all forms of liberty and law, emanate from the people, the highest court of appeal above all legal enactments and constitutions, it is essential that this origin of power, in which rests the divine right of revolution, this Alpha and Omega of free government, should be at least intelligent. Nay, it should possess, to the fullest extent, these three vital forces that I have named.

The state owes the citizen one single thing, protection. It owes him this because it is one of the natural rights surrendered by the citizen to the state on its organization; and all the obligations of the state to the citizen may be met under this one principle. It owes, in the same sense, no sect or party even this; it may grant it, but it will do so for its own benefit, and not for that of the sect or party. It levies taxes, raises and supports armies, imposes duties on articles of foreign commerce, because all such acts are a necessity of the state. Individuals, sects, and parties may be granted certain privileges, but all must be enjoyed at the expense of those who receive them. If there has been any departure from this principle in the history of our government—and there may have been many in grants of special privileges, internal improvements, and what is called protection,—it has been in opposition to the true principle of government.

The state must do all things for itself. It can not educate the citizen for he citizen's benefit, but for its own. Prussia educates her children for the :overnment. She gives them a religious education, not because the salvation if the soul is of any concern to the state, but because the state is the stronger 'or this religious element. She gives them an intellectual education, because ntelligence is the glory and strength of the empire; more than all this, she ;ives them a military education, not because it is of any private interest to the :itizen to be a soldier, but that she may use him as an instrument of power in offensive and defensive war. Not one thing does she do for her citizen simply is a man, but the affording of protection. So, in our own country, whatever nilitary education is given at our military and naval academies, and whatever physical, moral, and intellectual education is given at our public schools, is lone for this one purpose, the use of the government alone.

It is not, then, the private want of the citizen, or the convenience of any particular party or sect, that determines the kind and amount of public educa- tion that the state shall afford; and this principle holds good, moreover, whether the educating agent be the general government, state, or municipal government. The whole theory of public education is, and must be, based on the public good.

In order to determine the extent of public education, we must know the amount of knowledge necessary to conduct the general affairs of the state, county, and city; how much intelligence is needed as the basis of the highest manhood; also, how much and what kind of education may be perpetually guaranteed to the state from individual enterprise.

If men would not prepare themselves for the performance of the more diffi- cult duties connected with the government, such as appertain to the state de- partment, finance, diplomacy, etc., schools would be provided and men edu- cated for it at the public expense. But this is not a need, hence we have no such schools—we need none. All the more general duties belonging to the state can be performed by men of common attainments; and the common- school course, moreover, is sufficient as a basis of general intelligence and as a plane from which the highest development may be reached; and this grade alone would be sufficient, if, without a higher grade, it could be maintained in its greatest efficiency. But men look higher than this. Fix the limit here, and private institutions will be established in every considerable city. We shall hence have private schools for the rich, and public schools for the poor. Hope of higher attainment and elevation in a great measure removed from the poorer classes, the great mass would fail to reach that degree of intelli- gence which the best interests of the state require.

Another evil growing out of this state of things, would be the failure to produce a homogeneous society. Our free public schools, as they now are, with their yearly increasing power, constitute the great leveling force of the ages. Not that they bring all high things low; they bring low things high as well. They make low and high things meet above the mists of the marshes and below the glittering hights of the perpetual snow line, in the region of perennial life and beauty.

No man can estimate the influence on the intelligence of the state, that

goes forth from our higher grades of schools; and, although the greater nur ber of children may not enter them, still even those who do not, feel their inf ence, and they afford the cheapest and best stimulus to general education th the state can give.

These higher grades of schools are denominated in our country, hi schools; they seem to be not so much state institutions as municipal a township schools,—the state by general tax providing for the minimum qu tity of education, and then permitting each city, corporation, or township supplement this with another tax to support a higher grade, and to contin all grades in operation for a longer time.

Now, to what extent these high schools shall be carried, is a most diffic problem to solve. It would evidently be unjust and oppressive to support public tax schools of the highest grade, represented by such colleges as Dr mouth and Yale, in sufficient number to educate all that would enter th under that state of circumstances. It would require an enormous tax on many for the benefit of the few. The evil would overbalance the good.

But such higher education is necessary. Business demands it, science mands it, the church and all professions demand it; and this demand create the supply. Private enterprise will do this, assisted, it may be, by st patronage, without resort to taxation.

We shall have, then, three grades of schools—the common, the high, the college. Where shall the common end? Evidently where the high beg Where should the high school end? Evidently not far from where the coll begins. In linguistic studies this should be the rule. Deeper and more th ough plowing and cultivating in a narrower field, will make better scholars better citizens. Some branches of science, of mathematics, and of gen literature, of a useful and practical nature, may be carried farther. But greater good will be accomplished, both for the people and the state, when e grade of school shall work in its own separate field; when those abnor institutions, called colleges, less extensive and thorough in their course t nine-tenths of our best high schools, shall be baptized with some new and n appropriate name; and when those who conduct them shall learn that the which they generate burns with a flame, not hot, and less luminous than of hydrogen.

This system might be crowned by a great national university, endowed pa by private enterprise, partly by the state, without resort to taxation. The priety of this I have not space to discuss. But the system thus completed which public and private interests are harmoniously blended,—its base common school, its capital the university,—would be a fit monument for admiration of the ages.

Passing to the second part of my theme, I ask: What kind of educa may the state demand? A comprehensive answer to this question would that kind which, in all respects, would develop the highest manhood. I s not delay to consider courses of study or methods of instruction, but shall sider briefly those greater and broader aims of the teacher, the formatio national habits in respect to those great principles which make the most

fect physical, moral, and mental man. These are possibilities. Nations have risen and have decayed through the force of national habits.

If we shall look for the causes that have produced the peculiar characteristics of any modern nation, we shall generally find them in national habits,—habits formed in some distant period of the past,—commanded, it may be, by the supreme power of the state.

We admire that pure Caucassian family, first known in the extensive forests beyond the Rhine, where it lives to-day the most interesting and powerful nation of Europe, the giant in the spiked helmet,—a nation physically, mentally, and morally great. We find many of the causes of all this in their national habits, acquired before the days of Julius Cæsar.

The world has never seen a warrior superior to the Spartan. To him the preparation for battle was the preparation for a grand festival, and this Spartan, warlike manhood, and all other superior national qualities of that remarkable people, were solely the result of education. The nation under a beautiful sky, with a gentle climate and fertile soil, was lapsing into effeminacy, but under the laws of Lycurgus the sterner qualities of the race were developed; and so we shall find with every nation and race if we go behind the more prominent events of history to the more silent yet not less powerful forces that produce them.

National habits are possibilities, and national improvements are made by means of them, and national necessities must be thus supplied.

The state needs strong bone and muscle, like the knighted and highland heroes of Walter Scott,—like the immortal band that defended Thermopylæ. She needs men of large stature,—men, like Washington, whose great mind dwelt in a magnificent physical frame.

A fair representation of the average physical character of this country, may be seen in almost every school room. Select twenty boys, command them to stand erect before you: a majority stand with one shoulder higher than the other. Other kinds of deformity are seen, some of which are the results of improper school habits, and others have been inherited from an imperfect ancestry. But whether these defects are of recent production, or have been carried down through many generations, they are all, to a great extent, the result of habit.

God made man upright, not a crawling, paddling, or even a flying thing. He made him erect; his head the dome of the physical temple, overlooking and overtopping all. Thus standing, perfect in physical form, he is, even to mortal vision, the grandest work of the great Architect,—in beauty surpassing St. Peters and all the works of the great masters. This temple, the outer building, within which dwells the man himself, made a little lower than the angels, and crowned with glory and honor, was the last and best of the Creator's physical works; and yet this man has sought out many inventions. He has discovered how to change the entire form of the outer temple; the upright vertical column on which the dome rests is made to bend forward, and the dome itself to project from the upper part of the arc in a manner resembling somewhat the bow of the ship of the desert. Man, upright man, is content to build himself up after the model of the camel.

Man was made erect, and his tendency to physical degeneracy is not so manifest in very early childhood. When the years are light upon his shoulders, he generally stands erect; and if he would continue thus to stand, as accumulating years press upon him, he would not be made to bend under the weight of three score years and ten.

More than any other people, ours is a mixture or combination of nationalities. Like the disintegrated material of ancient continents flowing down to ancient seas, commingling, settling, assimilating, raised up by internal forces, presenting a new world, better than the former; so these vast streams of population, flowing in from all the nations of the east, controlled in their combinations by the forces of moral repulsions and attractions, may form a new and better type of man. But the end is not yet; and it will require generations to develop the perfect race. But no fitful effort in some single city, no dress parade of the boys in Boston high school, no single transformation of crooked young men into straight soldiers by the military appliances at West Point, will accomplish this. Nor will it ever be accomplished until physical culture becomes the habit of the nation.

In a small state, like that of Greece, the government can command certain practices which, in less than one generation, consolidate into national habits; but in a state like ours, covering half a continent, the task is no easy one. For the accomplishment of this directly, the government, with all its power, is impotent. But the public schools, permeating all grades of society, cherished alike even by contending sections, operating at the very base and fountain of society, is the only agency through which this work may be done.

But the state demands from the public schools habits of good morals as a basis of perfect physical and mental character. The perfect physical man can not grow out of a corrupt heart and deb nuched nature. This moral purity is necessary, also, as a guide to correct political action; and there can be no matter of greater importance than this,—none in which the state is more interested, whether she recognize it or not. There is a single manifestation of good morals, concerning the value of which there can be no difference of opinion. I refer to that of politeness. Many Americans are polite, but I am not aware that Americans are known in foreign lands by this characteristic, and yet it is an important sign of a greater good within. But the sign may exist without the thing signified. "A man may smile and smile, and be a villain"; hence moral instruction should go deeper than this.

It is claimed that the public school is organized and established for the sole purpose of instruction in the elements of science and letters; that it differs in no respect from commercial schools, schools of law, and other professional establishments, save in the kind of instruction. No greater mistake has ever been made; and it would seem that no man who has spent a single year of his life, or a single month of his life even in a primary school, where, descending from the rugged hights of sterner manhood, his own heart has beat in sympathy with the heart of childhood,—where he has seen the plastic being immortal passed over to him to be moulded as clay in the hands of the potter,—where many a time he has been forced to contemplate its infinite possibilities and unending destiny,—would come to such a conclusion as this.

know what professional schools are established for. But can we tell the
ılar object aimed at in the common school? Is it the acquisition of
›r is it mental discipline, or is it both? If it is the acquirement of facts
, what is to be the application of these facts? What is their object?
nly, for the most part, discipline. Why require the teacher of the pub-
ool to be a man of good moral character? Why does the state require
Why discuss methods of instruction, or attempt to arrange courses of
o correspond with the order of mental development? Why discuss mat-
government and discipline at all? Why not govern by the stern, in-
ıle rod, or why talk about the moral power of the teacher in the govern-
›f the school or the control of scholars by an appeal to their higher na-
In a word, why does the state recognize the principle "*in loco parentis*",
by should the teacher try at all to make the wayward child better, or to
: banner "excelsior" into the hand of the young moral hero?
young blacksmith makes a nail, not that he may be better prepared to
ıct a steam engine, but that he may shoe a horse. The young student
reads Blackstone, not that he may count the stars or weigh distant suns
ınces, but that in courts of law he may claim justice for those who may
d it at his hands.
pupil in the common school studies the cube root, progressions, equa-
—to what practical use will he apply this knowledge in any of the ordi-
ansactions of business, or in any of the learned professions?
ı professional school, or school of art, is organized to prepare young
ıd women for that particular calling or art. But the common school
g from all, and in this regard higher than all, is made to prepare chil-
› be men; men for this world it is true, but men in the highest sense,
ing all those elements essential to true manhood, and they must do all
m that is necessary to make them men, the consciences of individuals
ects to the contrary notwithstanding.
school is not for the individual, not for the sect; it is for the state. It
tate's great laboratory for generating men. Here all essential elements
:ombine in such just proportions as shall crystalize into perfect man-

an a moral and religious being? Does he need, for his most perfect
›ment and self-control, a knowledge of God, of his own origin and des-
the possibilities of the human soul beyond the horizon of mortal life?
hese things may be taught in the public schools; and the Bible, the
of all this true knowledge, may be used too. And all this may be done,
ıderstood, because the state needs just such men; and it has no other
under its own control for producing them. No man can demand of
:e this kind of education for his son; no sect for her children; but the
ay demand it from the people for her children, and that convenient and
thing called conscience must stand aside, as it does when armies march
nners wave.
ering the field of our moral nature, combining both the intellect and
:e those subjects which appertain to art and design, inventions and me-
al skill. A foundation for these may be laid in the public school. The

germ of man's æsthetic nature may be unfolded there. The eye may be cultivated to see things and forms of beauty, the soul to appreciate them, and the hand to produce them. This is partly secured by that system of free hand drawing that is so rapidly becoming universal. But free hand drawing is not sufficient. The architect and mechanic use the scale for determining lines and distances; and we neglect one essential part of practical education when we stubbornly refuse the use of instruments in school. If it is an accomplishment to be able with the eye to estimate with great accuracy the length of a line, it would certainly be regarded as a very great defect not to be able to determine it accurately with a scale.

It is supposed that the great master-builder used the square and compass when the foundations of the temple were laid; and every stone was prepared in the quarry with instruments. The dome of St. Peters was projected by one who could use instruments with hands almost divine; and why should we in our laudable earnestness in the work of free hand drawing reject the necessary complement of it. We may not introduce extensive systems of mechanical drawing into our common schools, but we can do so much as to develop a taste and talent in this direction; and all over our land, from sea to sea, the temples of grandeur, the dwellings of magnificence, and homes of beauty shall tell its utility. Artists, artizans, men in every department of skilled labor, shall work with a more cunning hand.

But there is one other kind of knowledge which the state must ever regard as of paramount importance, and that is a knowledge of itself. No man is prepared to perform the functions of a citizen till he understands the nature of the state; and the value of this knowledge can scarcely be estimated in a republican state. Party tactics and party strife are contemptible; and we should learn and feel that party leaders, simply as men, no matter what may be their personal merit, or the kind of service rendered, whether they have commanded armies or newspapers, are entitled to no political consideration. We should learn that the great people in this land have but one interest in common; and that if any party shall pull down the pillars of the state, the whole fabric shall fall upon their own blind heads and grind them to powder. Such is the genius of the republican state, that the man who casts a wicked vote, himself shall share the evil done; the legislator who shall enact an unrighteous law to-day, to-morrow shall stand among the people and fell the full force of the mischievous engineery that he has set in motion.

Now all these are simple principles, easy to be understood, and they may be instilled into the minds of the children until correct habits of political thinking are established;—then may we have an American citizen whom party harness or party shackles shall not be able to bind.

I have thus attempted to indicate the kind of schools that the state should establish, and the grand ends to be accomplished through their instrumentality, viz: the formation of national habits that will develop a better type of physical, moral, and intellectual men;—men that can plan and dare and do all those great works which the situation and circumstances of the nation and the infinite activities of the times seem to demand,—men of superior form, heart, and mind.

If our faith shall comprehend this great work, we may with propriety magnify our office, for we stand to-day in the fore front of civilization. In our work at home and our work abroad, in our educational conventions, state and national, we are healing the wounds that war has made, harmonizing many of the apparently conflicting interests of the country,—creating a spirit among the people that shall break in pieces the implements of war, and shall unite the states themselves in a stronger bond of union.

Fellow Teachers, standing on this high plane, engaged in such a work as this, beg we not at the doors of the capitol, but go work in our several places, each over against his own door, till we shall mold and fashion and send forth a race of men that shall recognize and honor the cradle in which they have been rocked.

DISCUSSION OF THE PRESIDENT'S INAUGURAL.

MR. HENKLE stated that he had a letter from Mr. Barnard, who was to have opened the discussion, stating that he could not be present on account of sickness in his family.

PRESIDENT E. T. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College, being called upon to open the discussion, spoke as follows: I do not know why it should be taken for granted that a president of a college is able to discourse learnedly upon any question in education upon a minute's notice. I will, however, say a word, in order that we may go on with the discussion. You have covered, Mr. President, some ground, the most important that we can consider—the duty of the state in several respects. However much I might be inclined to differ from you upon one or two abstract statements you have made as to what are the functions of the state, yet we shall all agree that the entire education of men and women, as men and women, will solve the other question; and that the object which the state should have in conducting schools at all, should be to make the very best possible schools in every respect, in order that the children may be educated as nearly perfectly as we can do it. With this understanding, Mr. President, I believe I am only repeating the sentiment you have yourself stated, and I can cordially agree with you.

As to the limit—as to the grades of schools—which it is proper that a state should encourage, we are not now ready perhaps to determine entirely. In many states the highest school in the state is a state institution. In many of our western states they have state universities. In Ohio we have two colleges which are under the charge of the state in one respect; that is to say, that the trustees are appointed by the governor and senate, but the state does nothing for them. And nearly all of our colleges have been founded and are sustained by different christian denominations. It is a question not yet, therefore, entirely solved, what is the duty of the state with respect to such schools, and I am not willing to look upon it a settled matter, either one way or the other. However for us here in Ohio, practically we will all agree that with these schools which are under the charge of particular denominations, the state should not attempt to meddle. They have been established by particular denominations; let them remain with them, and let them be supported by them if they can be, and if they can not—as there seems to be danger that some of them can not be—let them fail in the hands of those who have had charge of them.

As to our high schools, however, we shall all agree, and for the reason you have given us, Mr. President, because the high schools do throw back, as it were, upon all the schools, and the whole educational system of the state, an influence which is

far greater and far more important than the immediate education of those few who may be in these highest grade of schools.

Then, as to the kind of education that should be given. Here again I can agree, and I believe we can all agree with our president, that too little attention has been paid to the fact that the children entrusted to our care are more than merely intellectual beings. That they have bodies, and that their souls are not only capable of knowing—and I beg pardon for saying over again what I said yesterday—but also that they have powers and faculties which should be educated. I am glad, Mr. President, you have brought this forward so clearly as you have. In the education of the children entrusted to us, the methods which are to be pursued is perhaps the most important subject that we teachers have yet to work out. We find, practically, that in all grades of schools, from the highest to the lowest, a very large portion of the labor of those who are engaged in teaching, is lost, because they do not understand or do not apply the best methods—they do not know the best methods. For one I confess my own ignorance, in many respects, in these matters. So far as I can see, in many schools of Ohio, two or three times as many days and months and years are occupied in attaining particular objects by some teachers as by others, showing that the majority of those who are engaged in the work are not applying the best methods to the work. Is this because we have neglected to develop the whole being? I ask it not intending my question to answer itself, but merely that some of those who are present, and who are studying this question, may help us to answer. Shall we be able to teach mathematics, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, the English language, geography, or the higher branches, the classics—shall we be able to give instruction in all these better, and to make the children more thoroughly acquaintedwith all these sciences in less time, if, while we are working with these, we also bear constantly in mind that they have bodies and souls to be cultivated also? Is there something to be gained in that way? I am sure there is something to be gained, but that man or those men or women who will enable teachers, you and me, and all of us, to adopt such methods in our schools and class-rooms as will attain in two years those objects for which we now give three years, will have conferred the greatest blessing for which we are now looking. Much has been said about the man who made two blades of grass grow where but one grew before; but the greatest trouble in all our schools is the waste of time, and he who remedies this will be a great benefactor.

W. S. Furay, of the Cincinnati *Gazette:* I know how ungracious a task it is for any one to utter a note which may seem to be a discordant note in the strain which previously has been all harmony. I rise now with a very great deal of diffidence to express my earnest dissent to one of the propositions contained in the president's able and eloquent address. I had been hoping that some one else would do this, but I find the discussion about to close without its being done, and I can not as a member of this Association permit a thing of this kind to pass without entering my dissent. Of course it may be viewed merely as an abstraction, but abstractions are things—abstractions govern the mind in reference to practical methods and practical pursuits. The president tells us in his address, that the question is not so much what kind of schools shall the people demand that the state shall sustain, but what kind shall the state demand;—what sort of education shall the state demand to be imposed upon the citizens? I can not conceive that that is at all in accordance with the theory of our government, or in accordance with the theory of popular education. I do not believe any system of schools upon that plan, can be imposed by the state upon the people which will stand the test of time, or stand the test of popular scrutiny. I believe the only system of popular education which can be sustained in this country, and the only one in accordance with our theory of government that we

should attempt to sustain, is the system which the people demand for themselves and for their children. There is no such thing as a state above and beyond the people. The people are the state. The voice of the people is the voice of the state. The collective will of the people is the will of the state; and it is useless to talk of the state demanding that this, that, or the other system of education, must be imposed upon the people for the safety of the state. It is the safety of the people that is in question. The people themselves are the best judges of the measures necessary for their own safety, and it is the kind of education that they require which we are to consider. The kind of schools they are willing to sustain should be adopted, and no other. Too frequently are we in the habit of looking upon the state as something above and beyond the popular will; but I counsel you, teachers of Ohio—you ladies and gentlemen who stand high in the profession; ladies and gentlemen whom I honor from the very depths of my inmost being,—not to adopt the theory that there is a system, a form and system of schools, above and beyond the will of the citizens of the state. Your duty should be to follow carefully and closely the popular pulse, to find out precisely how that beats in the direction of popular education as in all other directions; find out precisely what the will of the people at any particular time may be, and while you seek to educate that will, while you may seek to bring it up to the highest standard, as it is no doubt your duty to do, never go too far beyond, at any time, the hight to which that popular will has already reached. If you wish better schools in the state of Ohio—better schools in the United States—than you have now, then let it be your business to go before the people and tell them what you want, and interest them, if possible, in your own views, and communicate to their minds the necessity which you feel for a higher, a better, and nobler system of education; but never imagine that, without their will, without their consent, you can impose that higher system upon them. They will not sustain it; and without the people to back you, not only does your higher system of education go down, but the whole system of public schools, from the foundation to its topmost stone, will be swept away and not a wreck remain. Study carefully the will of the people; study carefully the popular pulse; and when you know that they demand something better than what you now have, then you are ready to proceed to adopt something better, and not before. (Applause.)

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati: I feel that we indulge sometimes in notions which are indefinite as to what a state is, and what the functions of a government are. I know of no special theory of our state that differs very widely from the theory of states generally. Every government professes to be founded for a certain purpose, and that is for the good of the citizens possessing that government. I know of no other theory of government any where, and I suppose that we shall come most closely to the theory of our government when we have adopted and carried out most thoroughly the fundamental design of all government; that is, the greatest good to the people. If the theory of our government were, that the people were to remain in ignorance, so much the worse for the theory of the government. But by the correct theory, I believe that the propositions of the president and the gentleman who preceded me are identical. The people in this country are the state, and in some sense in every country they are the government. I agree most heartily with the gentleman who has preceded me, that you can not get beyond the people; but there is a great foundation principle to be laid down by the people—by the Teachers' Association of Ohio; that is, that it is in some sense the representative of the educational feeling of the state, or the best educational sentiment. There are certain fundamental propositions that we must lay down, or that we ought to lay down, that we believe to be essential to the best interests of our citizens. I think that upon the general proposition that a certain amount of education is necessary, we are all thor-

oughly agreed. But I go far beyond that. I believe it to be essential to the existence of the government, and to the existence of society itself, that, with such a form of government as we possess, we should have every citizen educated. I believe that to be a proposition that can not be successfully controverted. I believe it also to be a very unwise policy to restrict the amount of this education. I believe that the more of the higher education you have, the more and the better will the lower education be. I foresee, Mr. President, that we are about to enter upon the controversy of high-school education in this country. I think it would be a bad policy and a dangerous policy for this country to adopt the proposition, that the masses of the people shall be restricted to nothing more than what is termed common-school education—that is, the education of the lower schools. I believe the education of the higher school is reflected upon the lower schools, and I believe the lower schools must have room to grow above their present position, or they will cease to grow. I believe it would be a bad policy for us to say, we will educate in the common and grammar-school course, and there cease, and let the other parts of the course be done by individual enterprise. I believe it would be bad policy to adopt any other system than that one that will give the most education that our means will permit us to give. I am well aware that in small villages circumstances may be such that the expenses of maintaining high schools may be too great, but the standard we think should be as great as I have said. Let us educate as highly as we possibly can with the means we have in hand to do it with, and let us feel that every dollar put into the brains of our children will return ten dollars in material prosperity to the people.

I can not conceive of a great state in this era of civilization that can make itself felt in the world's history, that can be a great people, a noble people, that does not adopt some such a policy as this. Why sweep away from Cincinnati, Cleveland, or any other of the larger towns, their great high schools—and not a very large number of pupils go through them perhaps—but they present the possibilities to every boy and girl in those cities, if they will to go forward, and if they have energy and determination, they will try to possess this higher education, and this spirit permeates the whole community. What man with a family and means would locate in a city that has no high-school system? It is material wealth as well as mental wealth. I believe, Mr. President, that, as a general thing, we do not occupy high enough ground upon this question. I perhaps view this as a schoolmaster, and as most others would, but I say that those towns and cities that are flourishing most in material wealth, that have most comforts, the best morals, are the towns and cities and communities that are devoting most of their energies, and giving the most enthusiasm to the education of the whole people, not in a low sense, but in the very highest sense. Let us, ladies and gentlemen, link the lowest schools by different grades with the university, and let our young men and young women in every community feel that they can only be kept from the highest point by their own indifference and want of energy. (Applause.)

J. B. Weston, of Antioch College: There was one idea dropped by the speaker last but one upon the floor, that I can not forbear alluding to. If I did not know my friend so well, I would think he was looking at school matters in the light of a politician rather than of a schoolmaster, when he urged so strongly that we should look at the popular will and be guided by the popular feeling in any given case. There was one saving clause in his remarks which only lacked emphasis, and that was, that we should educate the popular will. If the popular will, the popular feeling had been the guide of the friends of common schools for the last fifty years, where would our common schools have been? If the popular will, the popular feeling in the state of Massachusetts had been the guide of Horace Mann, when he attempted the common-school reform in Massachusetts, where would have been the

mon-school system of Massachusetts and of the United States? The state has
n spoken of and the people spoken of, and we have been cautioned to remember
; there is no abstract state separate from the people. But we should remember
: the people of the United States are two things. They are the state and they
the people; they are the law-makers and they are the law-bearers; they are the
i who assess the taxes and the men who pay the taxes assessed. I stand, then,
you stand before the world in these two relations. We are the component parts
hat abstract thing, the state; the practical workers in that practical thing of
ing taxes to the state. For what purpose are our common schools established?
to educate my children; I may have them or I may not. Not to educate the
dren of particular persons, whose money may be abundant while they have no
dren, or whose children may be abundant while they have no money. We are to
: at the question as a whole. Our ideal common-school system is a system which
l benefit the children as the nation's children, and the children of the nation as
e who a few days hence will be the citizens of the nation—will be the state.
r the question, it seems to me, which lies at the foundation of the whole matter
hat is the education which the children need, which will fit them to be the best
ens when they shall be the active citizens? What shall bring the best condi-
s, the best morals, the best intelligence, the best health, the best manhood into
e children's heads and hearts and bodies, so as to enable them best to perform
: duties when the responsibilities of the state shall be upon them? In that con-
n, while we are the people, the tax-gatherers are not to ask what we most wish
hat other's wishes are in regard to the matter at issue, but what will the state
—the public interest need. And when we have come to that conclusion, if the
le are not ready to do that, what shall we do? Hold back and do nothing?
e: "Do the best you can.") Do the best you can is well said, but where shall
5? Lay the matter before the people, and bring them up to the standard? As
as they are virtually the law-givers, we must have their consent; but must we
because they have not the ideal they should have? I believe (we may suffer
lves to be "a mutual admiration society" in the state) there are no people in
that know so well what sort of education the people need as the schoolmasters
choolmistresses; and while we fix our hearts upon the best ideal, let us bring
eople up to that best ideal. We can not have the law until we have the ideal,
e people are the law-makers. But let us have the ideal, and work among the
e and in the schools for an ideal system, and let that ideal school system be
as shall be the best for the state in its highest capacity. Then, inasmuch as
eople and the tax-payers are the same, we can work together in harmony. On
sides the argument is based upon this question in the abstract; but let us re-
ber that, while we are the people, we are the state; while we have individual
sts, we have general interests. The questions of to-day are not only what
be for our simple interests for the day, but that which shall grow up for our
nterests at a future day.

SIDENT: In order to avoid discussion on one or two points, I wish to state
I mean by the terms I used. I should say there are some very unguarded ex-
ons in this address, but they have occurred on account of the fact that ill-
oth at the beginning and close of the year, prevented me from giving atten-
o it so early that I could review and qualify the terms used. I do not think
is any special difference between my meaning and Mr. Furay's views. I mean
e state, as used there, the whole in their organized capacity. I mean by the
e, simply citizens in the school district; citizens in the town. I mean to say
o part of the citizens, no small part of the citizens, shall dictate to the whole
ized body of citizens what they shall do; but that the citizens in their organ-

ized capacity shall say to the part of the citizens and to the citizens in their unorganized capacity what shall be done. That is what I mean, and you may criticise that as much as you like. But when I use the term people, I do not mean the state; and when I use the term state, I do not mean the abstract thing but the power of the state.

W. WRIGHT, of Rushsylvania, O.: I most heartily approbate the sentiment brought forward by our president, not merely for the effect produced upon us as an association of teachers, but for the effect which will be produced by the inaugural throughout the state. I am satisfied from my own personal experience that it will do good, like the testimony last year in Sandusky, which did very much to strengthen the backbone, the moral stamina of the teachers throughout the state. Some of those present advocated on the floor the necessity of teaching morality as connected with rectitude. I am glad we have that principle advocated to-day by our president. There are other points I wish to speak upon briefly. I think we have got into the mist in our definition in reference to governments and nations. Governments and nations are two distinct things. A nation is composed of every individual inhabiting the territory or country; the government is an institution of God, established for the good of men. On that very principle it is our duty as teachers to teach the principles of true government, and I believe just there is a principle that is brought out, that of justice, and the idea that law should be founded on justice. This comes from the principle we call conscience. And whence comes conscience? From the teachings of God's word. Remove that, and we have a heathen's conscience.

I most heartily reaffirm the position also taken by the superintendent from Cincinnati, that, instead of bringing down and restricting the course of study, let it be increased to the largest extent. I believe it to be our duty, as an Association, to labor to extend the common-school course to embrace several studies it does not.

As to the attention we should give to popular sentiment, I look upon it that it is our business, if we understand the position we occupy, to make popular sentiment. As already stated, it is because of the influence of the schoolmaster that the schools to-day occupy as high a plane as they do; and it is our duty to go on and raise the public sentiment higher and higher,—and in one sense it is to the schoolmasters of Ohio that we are to look for the public sentiment of Ohio. When we are engaged in the school-room inculcating truth, we are there forming the national habits; and if we are true to our position, the good results of our work will show in another generation.

W. H. G. ADNEY, of the Ohio University, Athens, O.: It is desirable that the address should go forth to the people of the state, and yet I should have some regret in seeing it go to the people of the state with one or two allusions, unguarded as they may have been, as our excellent president has suggested; and there is one other to which I will allude: that is, his comparison between the colleges and the high schools of the state. I believe, as our president has suggested, that our whole system of schools, from the highest to the lowest, should be perfectly dovetailed together, and I deplore the fact that the primary, intermediate, high schools, colleges, and universities are not parts of the same great system, as he has suggested they should be. In giving them in that order, the president indicated that our colleges should stand above the high schools; but there was an allusion, by direct comparison, which seemed to indicate that such was not the order of their relations at present. I believe his language was something like this, in referring to the colleges, that nine-tenths of them were less efficient than our high schools.

PRESIDENT: Let me correct you, as you have entirely mistaken my position. In speaking of colleges in this connection, I said those *abnormal institutions* CALLED *colleges*, which were less thorough than nine-tenths of our high schools, should be bap-

d with a new and more appropriate name, and should not have the name of col-
. I did not refer to any college, but simply to a thing which is sometimes got
in some back woods, and appropriates the name of college. (Laughter and ap-
ıse.)

ROF. ADNEY: That removes the entire objection, and I will close with a single
ark. I could not believe that this Association of ours, with such a large number
eachers, a large portion of whom are superintendents, could applaud such a sen-
ent. I am glad others understood it better. I could not believe that so many
ellent teachers could indorse the idea that they, with one or two assistants, would
ıble to do the work that the entire corps of professors could do in their *Alma*
ter.

ROF. JOHN D. PERRY, of Oberlin: First, I desire to make a single remark in re-
d to the people and the state. I believe there is no real difference of opinion,
there is one point I think should be emphasized in reference to that matter.
state stands in one view as the representative of the people, and it is a proper
w. In another view, the people stand as representing the power. Now there is
thing which I wish to suggest: we can not have a true state unless there be
tinuous action and inter-action, from day to day and from year to year, between
people and the state. Otherwise the state becomes simply a machine. Where,
rever, there is inter action continually going on, the state is the representative of
people, and the people, on the other hand, holding the power, the state is simply
means of carrying out their will. There is a continual action and inter-action
ch keeps the state up with the people, and, on the other hand, the people are
t up with all demands of the state. In judging when an ideal may properly be
ıanded, we should look at it in the light that what is for the good of the people,
or the good of the state; and any act of legislation to be legitimate, must be for
good of the people.

nother point, in reference to higher education. The position taken may be the
which is best for the time, but I believe we ought also to look at that which per-
ns to the state and people also in the highest sense in order that we may advance
l not remain on a low dead level. Now, Mr. President, what is it that the state
lly needs as to higher education? It is that there shall be men, each in his own
ıere, educated so that we shall have steam plowers, steam reapers, and mowers,
. Here is a man who has certain peculiarities which fit him to become an inven-
. Now shall that man be compelled to work forty or fifty years at his own ex-
ıse, simply to benefit the state? When you have a mower of good quality, con-
ucted, it may be, by the self-denial and life-long devotion of an individual, is not
humblest farmer benefited, and is it not a matter of interest to all, and should
not he willing to contribute to sustain such a man in pursuing the higher mathe-
ıtics, if they come in play in the invention? Here is another that would become
engineer. Is it not for the interest of the lowest man in community who would
benefited by the steam-engine, by railroads, by matters in which steam is brought
bear, is it not an interest to the poorest man that that individual shall be sus-
ned by the state, in order that these results may be brought, not to a clique, not
party, not to a guild, but to one and all as composing the nation, composing the
ımunity or commonwealth, thus resulting to the good of all and hence to the
d of the state?

ut another point. We say that we are to sustain our common schools. So we
. But how sustain them? Where are the teachers? Whence are the teachers
ome? Not from the common schools. If you have the teachers simply from the
ımon schools, a degradation of the common-school system will be the result, for
an not go above the fountain whence it flows. If we would have our common

schools advance, if we would have them conduce to the good of the state at large, we must have the fountain pure, and that fountain must be a high system of education,—universities, if you please, in which truth must be investigated for its own sake, and this must be carried out practically from year to year and from one generation to another. The fact is, if the common schools are to elevate, it must be because these are nurseries of learning in which persons shall get such instruction, training, and discipline as will enable them to go into neighborhoods, and with self-denial lift up the neighborhood by a persevering course in the training of young minds. I believe if we look at it in this light, we shall see the necessity for higher institutions, and I believe it is right that the state shall sustain these institutions.

Reference has been made to physical culture. It is demanded by the state itself for the good of the people, that we have men and women of a physique which shall be better than that which we now have. I believe it is a matter of self-protection that we should do something in this direction.

I want to make one remark bearing upon another point: that is, that the state failing to do these things, individuals should establish such schools as are needed.

In respect to the studies pursued by students in our state in order to build up the interests of the state, it is plain that the history of the state and United States should be taught.

Rev. O. N. Hartshorn, President of Mt. Union College: I wish to confine my remarks chiefly to the drift of the inaugural, as I understand it, applying chiefly to the kind of schools and kind of instruction, and the best methods of improving and elevating them. I understand that, in the inaugural, reference was made to our methods of public instruction in the schools, but I did not understand that he made any conflict or raised any difference between the schools, but recognized the common school, the high school, and the college, and that each was adapted to the other. I understood, also, that he recognized the use of the same principles in elevating our schools as we should use in the state in elevating our system of commerce or our system of agriculture or manufacture; that, in consulting the needs of the people, the will of the people, we should perhaps not look to the lowest, perhaps not to the highest. We should, however, look to that educated, enlightened sentiment that will be adapted to the wants of the people, recognizing, however, the very best principles that can be adopted in the practical applications of life. If you will notice how agriculture is improved, you will see the very best agriculturists of the commonwealth consulting together, studying the subject, examining it in all its theoretical as well as its practical bearings, and then perhaps, in addition to their agricultural associations, conventions, their agricultural publications, etc., they will appoint judicious persons to go to the legislature and devise for the interests of the people, perhaps drafting such bills as are needed and appreciated, and from time to time they will thus elevate the agricultural interests of the state. The same process you will notice has been adopted in regard to the commercial interests of the state, the manufacturing interests of the state, and every social interest of the state. That is the principle the teachers ought to adopt; the same common-sense means to elevate education in the schools of our state. I think we ought to look to it carefully to see what the people need. What do they *need* with regard to primary or common schools? Not just what they want, should their wishes be expressed, because perhaps the sentiment of some of our people in the more rural districts is not properly enlightened. As when Horace Mann started to lecture through Massachusetts on the subject of education, he sought to manufacture public sentiment: so we are to endeavor, to some extent to-day, to manufacture public sentiment, and, in manufacturing public sentiment, we must expect to do it somewhat as we see the little rivulet and brook forming the creek and river, and some of these perhaps forming the

reat Mississippi. Instead of looking at the mouth of the Mississippi, we should ather look at the source. In founding our great universities, we must look first at he foundation of our educational system, the common schools, then to our high chools, and then to our colleges; and if these common schools are not right, if hese high schools are not upon a proper basis, our colleges can not exist. If our chools have not their legitimate demands in the needs of the people, in their enlightnment, in their affections, in their love, in their appreciation, they can not exist. They must be needed and prized from the lowest to the highest; and if we can not dapt our schools to the needs and the desires, the enlightened desires of the people, hey can not live. There is a relation here between supply and demand just as in ther things, and we must not ignore that.

A single word, if you please, with regard to the allusion made in the address. It vas apparently incidental, and yet, to my mind, it had a wonderful meaning. The resident and several other speakers alluded to the mode of instruction in the comnon schools, in our districts in rural sections of the country, in our high schools in ities and towns, and in our colleges. Wherever instruction is given, it is desirable o have such a system as will, in the first place, discipline the minds of the pupils, nd that will, while it imparts the true facts, the real knowledge, still have this hought in view, to discipline so as to prepare man as man in all the relations of life. This should be our aim, because to be a man or woman, a *true* man—to be a man armoniously developed and disciplined—is greater than to be a king. How is this o be done? One thing I mention which we need, and I think every teacher will ealize it, and if you visit any institution of learning in the country the more your ttention will be called to it, that we need apparatus, specimens, models, charts, and he various facilities with which to illustrate every branch of study and throw it into angible form as much as possible before the pupil. In other words, while we teach subject, to treat the subject concretely, so that the principles can be seen. This vould abridge very much the time required for instruction. If we could manufacure or devise simple, correct apparatus, so as to engage very many of the faculties r senses, it would greatly aid us. I do not ignore the idea of training the senses f the young or old. I expect to receive some benefit by my visit here on this island. think none too old to learn through the eye or ear or any of the senses; and one hilosophy of education is to bring into requisition all the faculties; and whatever ay aid in this, whatever objects or apparatus you may use for the purpose of making xperiments or for illustrating, whatever specimens you may bring before the eye or the purpose of showing what you teach, will facilitate your work in the common chools, in the high schools, or in the highest university. We do not know in this ountry how to spend money in our common schools, our high schools, colleges, and niversities, as they do in some sections of the world, where their greatest outlays re for apparatus, the best that can be brought before the student. What we want s something that will abridge the time of teaching; that will abridge, to a certain xtent, that abstract principle we have in some schools. We do not want mere heory, but something adapted to this practical age. We want to begin this in our ommon schools. I wish to emphasize it, that I regard our common-school system s the highest system of the state. I am aware it does not, perhaps, finish the work; ut I regard our common schools as the fountains, and if you dry up these common chools, you will dry up the high schools, the colleges, the universities, and will dry p the state. What I mean is, that it is this that will benefit the people most: nd I refer to the people in their organized capacity as a state or commonwealth, ust as I understand the president to use it. We must look to the common schools o carry out the idea expressed by my friend from Cincinnati. Introduce into these chools those studies that are taught in the higher schools, so that they may be improved and led on as far as possible. I am aware that there are objections to bring-

ing the common schools up; but we need to educate our people, the tax-payers, in order to get better facilities for teaching, better buildings, etc. This is a subject that lies at the very foundation, it seems to me, of all the subjects we are to examine during our convention.

PRESIDENT J. H. FAIRCHILD, of Oberlin, being requested to speak upon the subject, said: It is very unfortunate that you have brought me out, because I feel that I have nothing to say in regard to the matter. Not that I have not been interested; I find myself greatly interested and instructed when I am permitted to go into a gathering of teachers as I have had the privilege of doing this morning; but I always have this experience, that if I have any thing I would be glad to say, if I wait patiently, I will hear it said. (Laughter.)

I can say that I have been edified both by the address and by the criticisms and remarks that have been made. They all seemed to be in place, and there was no sort of conflict between them in my own feeling. The address regards it as the object of common schools and colleges to make the best men and women the world needs. That is the purpose of all our education; it is the outcome of the address, as I understand it; and the outcome of those who depend upon the will of the people as our guide in the work of education. The thing we want to aim at is to get the best results in human education and human life. The interest of the people is what we are aiming at—the greatest interest of the people; and we may help them greatly sometimes without waiting to get their sense upon certain matters. If we see a man drowning, we do not wait for him to tell us what he needs, but strive to rescue him at once. The people are in favor of education, and we are trying to persuade them to accept the thing they need, so there need be no conflict here.

I feel that perhaps there is in our common school system a tendency to elevate the mechanical part; that is, to make a good deal of the mechanism of the organization, and bestow perhaps more upon that than upon the *personnel* of the thing itself. I sometimes feel that, in our efforts at thorough organization and attempts to bring up a mechanical arrangement that shall bring out the best results, we occasionally shut out the thing to be accomplished, and in a manner rob ourselves of the highest kind of educational forces with which Providence furnishes us. I suppose the mightiest forces in the education of the young is human character, personal character in the teacher; and we want our schools organized in such a way as to give a margin for this personal power to operate upon the young. We may work by machinery in the schools to such an extent as to make the teacher a mere mechanic turning the crank, rather than a moulding power to shape the material to his hand. It seems there is danger of running in that direction and robbing the teacher of his personal power, and not giving him that chance to bring his own personal forces to bear upon the education of children. (Applause.)

L. L. CAMPBELL, of Niles, O.: I would state that the last remark is the one I desire, very briefly, to call the attention of this meeting. With the main features of the inaugural, I perfectly agree; but, it seems to me, that the tendency of the discussion of this question this morning has been rather to call the attention to the imparting of knowledge, and that the great object was to impart a greater degree of knowledge in the different sciences, rather than to bring out habits of life, habits of thought; and I hope that this Association will not pass by what I conceive to be the primary object: that is, to fit the children of the state in such a way that they will be good citizens. And let me say that my own experience during the past summer has been—for I have asked the question pointedly of teachers, and the result has been that nineteen-twentieths of them have answered me that the primary object was to be simply a pouring in of knowledge—looking after methods of instruction and the imparting of knowledge, rather than habits of thought and habits of

character. I would like to see the attention of the Association directed a little more in that channel, rather than in the channel which the discussion has taken. I think we should always keep in mind, that the primary object of all education is to form correct habits of thought and habits of life, such as will make good citizens and a prosperous state.

REPORT ON OBJECT LESSONS.

BY MISS HARRIET L. KEELER, CLEVELAND, O.

I confess to being thoroughly appalled when I fully realized what I had done in consenting to occupy your time this afternoon in the discussion of object studies; for I could not conceal from myself the fact that the more I studied the subject, the more it seemed to elude me. Indeed, I was almost ready to accept and apply the old Scotch woman's definition of metaphysics, which was that when one man was talking to another man about something he knew nothing about, and the other man did not understand one word that he said, that was metaphysics. I have been fully persuaded, again and again, that that was object lessons. That object lessons have fallen sadly into disgrace of late, no one will deny. Weak, aimless, superficial, and incoherent, are perhaps not the worst things that are said of them, but they are bad enough.

There are those who deem the entire system nonsense, and have no hesitation in expressing their opinion. Others there are who once were eager and hopeful, but now are totally disheartened, and are ready to place object lessons in Lord Dundreary's category, "as one of those things that no fellow can find out." Still others there are, accepting quite as fully as any one the incompleteness of the success, yet believe that they see in the system the key of a great problem, and are content to labor, watching nature to see whither she leads that they may follow.

Object teaching stands as the representative of a new thought in education, not opposed to, though differing merely from, the older plan. No one will deny that that system which gives to the infant mind in the school but weak dilutions of the studies of maturer years, unless the teacher is broader than his creed, develops but a single faculty of the mind, *memory*. What does a child do when he learns to read? He remembers forms, and calls them by name; he gets ideas with these sometimes, and sometimes he does not. It is appalling the amount of average reading a child may accomplish, and yet be innocent of an idea. We teach a child number; if correctly taught, he first appreciates the fact, then connects it to memory. In *writing*, it is true, we train the hand, but, after a brief period, *memory* dictates the forms. Finally, the child learns his spelling lessons—an exercise of pure memory—unaided by association. Just here nature makes a grand stand for her rights, and is not always worsted in the conflict.

Now, I would by no means be held to assert that in the present constitution of our primary schools only memory is developed. Far from it. There is

everywhere a most zealous effort to crowd into the dry routine of school duties as much as possible of the vivifying influence of objective teaching. Through memory, by means of language lessons turning to account the little stones with which every good school is supplied, *much is done*, but it is erratic, irregular, dependent upon chance suggestions and humor of the teacher; and, while none of this should be omitted, it by no means fills the place or accomplishes the results that an easy, natural, systematic, and successful system of object teaching would do. We have all accepted, in some measure at least, the German discovery, that the human child is possessed of five senses, together with various muscles and faculties, all of which by a necessity of their nature demand constant activity; and we are at last seeing that the spontaneous activity of the observing faculty has a meaning and a use. What once was regarded as aimless action, is now recognized as the process of acquiring a knowledge upon which all subsequent knowledge is built. When Agassiz receives a new pupil, the first thing is to find out how much he can see;—what his eyes and ears and hands are worth to him. We proceed upon different principles, I fear.

Now I would not be understood as taking issue with a reasonable statement of the view that the memory must be developed. It must be developed. The child is ignorant, and he must learn; he must learn from books, moreover. He can not get his finger under the letters of his little book; he must remember, with no aid from any sense but sight, the sight of words A difficult task! and every mental faculty must be awakened to accomplish this the easier. With the other faculties of the mind in active operation, that of memory is proportionally strengthened. The intelligent child,—he who is quick to discern and most eager to tell what he knows,—other things being equal, learns to read soonest.

But not for memory only should the observing faculties be trained. In life he is the successful man who sees most accurately, compares most quickly, comprehends most fully, and decides most justly. If he must wait till he recalls what he had learned in books, he is outstripped in the race.

She only can attain the Bible stature of a woman,—as one who shall do her husband good and not evil all the days of her life,—who considereth a field and buyeth it, who purchaseth a vineyard with the fruit of her hands, who openeth her mouth with wisdom and stretcheth out her hands to the needy and looketh well to the ways of her household: such a one has need of something other than the knowledge learned in books.

The power to see, to comprehend, to judge, and then to speak; these are the essential things in after life, and these are the results that object teaching seeks, and it seeks them by precisely the means with which the child obtained them before he came to school. Objects, tangible forms, and facts in nature; and object teaching simply proposes to use the same means in school that *nature* is using *out* of school. It asks simply to put in the schools the *mother's* method at the same time that you put there the mother's children,—and that is all there is of it. It is no Herculean task to give an object lesson; there are no Eleusinian mysteries connected with it. Every wise and thoughtful mother, with leisure sufficient for the purpose, is giving object lessons every

ay. Every one of us who cherishes a loving sympathy with an active child, doing the same thing; we can not help it. The child compels us.

An object lesson, then, is simply a conversation looking toward three results, amely, that the child shall use his senses, that he shall obtain a clear concepon of the thing perceived by them; that he shall think and reason so far as is age and development warrant; and, lastly, that he shall express this ought and reproduce this conception in accurate language. This reproducon may also be expressed by form in drawing, or in the actual building, as roebel in the Kindergarten system. The aims, then, of an object lesson are, at the child may perceive, may think, may speak, and these are aims enough; r, if these are gained, all is gained. A knowledge of acts may and will ome with these; but it must be a concomitant, not an aim. It must come aturally, because of the interest we excite, not the result of drill; we drill nough in other things. Let there be twenty minutes respite, I pray you! he moment we turn an object lesson into a machine to force a few more facts to the memory, we are lost. I dwell the more emphatically upon this, ladies nd gentlemen, because I do believe that this is the rock upon which we split. do believe that this is the central point of our weakness. We are all ready nough to accept the theory; but our teeth are so set on edge by the wild rapes of past generations, that, in spite of ourselves, we are uneasy unless ur teaching has a direct bearing upon the memory. We turn the lesson from s legitimate purpose, and make it a Gradgrind machine; and then, because is not so good for this as a text book, we decry it, and say it is aimless and uperficial

And now, ladies and gentlemen, did you ever realize how many people there re in the world who can not see? Are there not among your acquaintances ndividuals in whose personal integrity you have the highest confidence, yet hose description of an event you would scarcely accept, though it were given nder oath? And why? Because you know they can not see and can not idge. Long ago we gave up the hope of *hearing* anything accurately. We o not expect the truth. We have listened to falsifications and exaggerations o long, that we let it go, attributing the situation to Providence and total deravity, to be corrected when the Millennium comes in. We ought to begin to orrect it now. I would have a child trained, as a matter of discipline, to see nd describe things exactly as they are. This habit formed, it will continue ke any other habit; and in this way *mental ability* will supplement *moral bligation*. Horace Mann, I believe, tells of a Scotch schoolmaster who insisted that a bag of beans was indispensable to a school room. Then, when a oy says that he has seen a hundred horses, let him count the beans, and see hether indeed he has seen that many. I should esteem it of much greater nportance that a child of nine years could relate accurately every incident hat occurred on his way to school, than that he should know the *multiplication table;* for the multiplication table will come with time, but the early eduation of the senses neglected, a fatal weakness is induced, which may overhrow the efforts of an entire life. Then, ladies and gentlemen, no object lesson is a failure if it induces the children to observe, to think, to express. It nay be imperfect in form, illogical in conception, unskillful in treatment; but

if it in any measure produces these results, in that measure it is a success. It may be urged that evils will arise from this incomplete form, illogical conception, and unskillful treatment. Undoubtedly there will. But do we not see lessons given every day in geography, arithmetic, and grammar that are imperfect, illogical, and awkward? yet we think we obtain very good results notwithstanding. Why may not this be true in object teaching as well?

Could each one of us to-day receive from some guardian genius the gift of our choice, how many think you would crave the power of expression? And yet in our schools we leave that which we esteem so highly, almost to chance.

To be sure we correct prevalent errors, and the teacher knows how often she goes over the weary round; but, aside from object teaching, there is no systematic effort to increase the child's vocabulary. Nor can there be, for it is from objects that we get ideas, and there are children in every city school ten years of age, whose available vocabulary is less than two hundred words. Observing teachers will tell you this. These, of course, are not children from cultivated homes, but they are the children for whom we are especially responsible, since the school stands to them as almost their only means of culture. Do you think we can count upon our fingers the children who come to our schools, six years of age, who, when the object is placed in position, have no words to express *under* the table, *upon* the platform, *between* the windows, *against* the wall? We can if we count by the hundred, but it will exhaust them every one.

And now, ladies and gentlemen, if indeed our theory be right, if it be truly worth our while to endeavor to put it into practice, what are the difficulties in the way, and where are the *lions chained* and *unchained* that bar our path? Pardon me if again I recur to the one already mentioned, for I certainly deem it the greatest. That while we accept the theory intellectually, we do not accept it in any such sense that it becomes part and parcel of practice. We believe with our heads, but not with our hearts; and that, in spite of ourselves, we deem it greater gain if the child has acquired *a fact* than if he *has seen* a thing. Time and practice will bring to this its sufficient remedy.

Again, our object lessons are not objective enough. This may seem a strange charge; but it is questionable how definite an idea a child of six years can obtain of an object, unless he can in some measure, at least, possess himself of it. The little toddling explorer, just free from his mother's lap, subjects every object of this unknown world to his senses. If it be a block, he feels it, puts it in his mouth, throws it to see what it will endure and what effect it will have; if a rattle, listens for the noise; if a flower, he picks it to pieces; if a fly, hears it buzz and pulls off its wings—all in the line of growth; and so, while undoubtedly larger children may be taught from pictures and may be required to remember, little children need things, and, if it be practicable, let each child have them;—we all know how possession strengthens our senses. But this is not easy, you say, and requires money and thought. It is true it is not easy, and it does require money and thought—thought not least. If these are obstacles, let them stand. They exist.

Another thing I will speak of, not because it belongs here, but because I thought of it in this connection; and that is, that when we use objects that the children have always seen, like table, clock, window, etc., we can not expect

ıt the children shall *see* more new things; the most we can hope is, that the ild will put his former impressions and vague conceptions into accurate lan- age. Indeed, it may be best to make language the principal aim of object ıching for the first year at least.

One result of this failure to make object lessons objective is, that we fail to t on the plane where the children are. We think they know more than they , question accordingly; the children guess—catch from intonation,—a few ght ones lead the class. The result looks just as absurd as it really is. me and practice will overcome this also. However there is a difficulty which ll be met everywhere, which is purely mechanical, yet it is undoubtedly a ave obstacle to success. The problem is to make the *mind active* and keep body *reasonably quiet.* We must steer our course between the Scylla of tless indifference, produced by repression, and the Charybdis of bedlam, luced by freedom from all restraint. If any think this to be easy, I would ost respectfully suggest that they try it. It is an entirely different thing to ınage *fifty* children from what it is to manage *one*; and right here the children *ust be managed*, and not *governed.* I use *manage* in the broad sense mean- ; to guide, direct, rather than control. Lay down your rules and enforce m, and the result will be that the child will place the rule and his necessity obedience first, and the object second. You do not call forth his best men- effort, and the lesson fails. It is possible to teach reading and arithmetic, have good order, and obtain high *percents*, and yet have little power in *man- ing* children. A successful object lesson can not be given without *managing* m.

One other obstacle may exist, gentlemen, and if it does, it lies at your door. system of object lessons can ever be a success, until it is recognized in the ırse of study,—until its results are counted in the aggregate with other re- ts, and help make up the standard by which the teacher's work is judged. e fact that the pupil must be advanced upon certain percents which all may ain, combined with that other fact that the best results of object teaching ı not be put upon paper, but are shown in the increased intelligence, the dy speech, the quick perception,—moreover, that these may escape you in ır hurried visits and press of work and responsibility,—makes your task one exceeding difficulty. In your hands is the reputation as well as the remu- ation of the teachers ; and if it should so happen (I do not say that it does will) that, when the final estimate is made, percents in arithmetic and geog- hy outweigh general intelligence and perception ; that she is held to be the t teacher whose pupils stand highest in these results which are produced by l; then, gentlemen, you may as well put your object lessons in the bottom he sea, for all the good they will do in your common schools. Remember, ase, that I do not ask that arithmetic and geography shall be ignored. I ıply ask that intelligence and perception be counted. I know of schools in ich they are. I believe there are many such.

wish I could fitly convey to you my ideal of what object teaching (but all an say will fall infinitely short of the reality) may be, when theory and prac- e, culture and experience, join hands to work the same result.

Object teaching, to be successful, must in one sense be universal; with the

child as the centre it must surround him with the provocations of growth in every direction. Not only form or color or objects for their qualities makeup a system of object lessons, but all things with which a child is surrounded, that enter into his daily life, or his daily experience. Not only objects in the ordinary sense of the word, but actions, states, conditions, everything that is related to him. It probably is not a matter of thrilling interest to a child that an object is natural and opaque and inflammable, and so forth, to the end of the chapter; it may do well enough for once or twice, but when continued the monotony is distressing. Let the first year be devoted to language if you please; use for its development all the objects in a child's little world, at school, at home, upon the street—the bird in the air, the cloud in the sky, the snow on the ground, the sun, the moon, the stars, everything, anything, that to his infant mind is an object of interest.

Later, when the child has gained language and possession of himself, broaden the field. Make the school a sort of museum to which he may bring his little treasures and discoveries sure of a welcome. They will be worthless of course, and after they have served their purpose you can throw them all away. Is it a lesson upon clothing? Let the children bring cotton and silk, linen and woolen. If little children, classify by color; if older, by texture; but with that to begin with, you need not stop unless you will until you have reached the sunny fields of Carolina, or the vine clad hills of France. Are you talking of food, of grains?—bring the wheat, and corn, and rye, and oats; as they grow if possible, if not as you buy them; but be sure that the children know what they are talking about; get down to where they are. Above all things, rouse curiosity; it needs but slight inspiration to set a company of children at work. Did you ever in an unguarded moment express your desire for specimens in sentomology before a group of active, loving children? And do you remember how it seemed that the very sky rained bugs and beetles? And that after you had gathered up every box, emptied every possible drawer, packed your clothing into the smallest available compass, you at length ventured to remonstrate, summoned sufficient courage to tell the loving hearts and willing hands that really you did not want any more, you had no place to put them? And do you remember how critical the children grew, and how they discovered beauties that escaped your eyes?

I would like to see something of that spirit in our object teaching. With a year for language, another to note relations, qualities, use; broadening the field and making everything grist that comes to our mill, I see no reason why, after that preparation, we may not lead to science whenever we will. I do not know that it would be best to do so, but it would be very easy. I do not feel ready to sustain with devotion any of the so-called systems of object lessons. That which seems to me best adapted to our purpose and most capable of modification, is the one known as the German. But the successful system will be that which grows up in our schools in the hands of our teachers. It is questionable whether we can simply transplant any system wisely. That represented by the Oswego school, gaining its inspiration from Pestalozzi and his German followers, developed and crystallized amid the severe practical thought, the stern demand for results which characterize the English mind.

; perhaps attained its highest success in the home and colonial training schools om whence it was transported to Canada, from thence crossed the lake to swego in the person of Miss Jones, and from the Oswego school it has been idely disseminated throughout the United States.

The *other* that I have called the German, is from Russia, and appeared in his country simultaneously with the introduction of the German tongue in ur public schools, it being used as an efficient aid in acquiring the use of the erman language. It, too, derives its inspiration from Pestalozzi, but it has rown up amid the deeper thought, the more generous culture, the more meta-hysical perceptions of the Germans. The English method looks for imme-iate results, the German for present and future growth. The one exalts the ing, the other the individual; both have substantially the same theory, both ake the child as the centre, but one, if I may so express it, carries its develop ent on in radiating lines, the other in concentric circles.

With our intense practical genius, it is possible that we have aggravated the efects of the English system. It may be that putting the German method to our American schools we shall so modify it by practice that it shall com-ine the excellencies of both systems. I am fully convinced that the success-l system for us will be American; that while gaining all assistance that we an from other quarters, ours must be adapted to American thought and needs nd must be the outcome of American culture.

We can have it if we will; if we do not believe in its necessity we shall not et it; if we spend our time carping at the mistakes of others we shall not at-in it. We can only reach it by going to work honestly, heartily, sparing either time, money nor effort. In this way only may we hope for success, nd in this way I most confidently believe we shall attain SUCCESS.

DISCUSSION UPON THE PAPER OF MISS HARRIET L. KEELER.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati, in opening the discussion, spoke as follows: Mr. resident, Ladies, and Gentlemen: It might seem, and doubtless will seem, like gild-g pure gold for me to say anything in addition to that which has already been so logi-lly said upon this subject. However, I will make some remarks upon one or two hints t drop in the essay to which we have listened. One of these is the fact, that ob-ct lessons are growing with some somewhat unpopular, or, at least, are losing the terest they once had. I think that proceeds from natural causes. I believe that o one who knows me will, for a moment, suppose I have changed in my estimate of e value of this method of instruction, or means, perhaps I should better say, of struction. But I am just as well convinced that many advocates of object lessons—do not include in that all of object teaching—have claimed too much for the means nployed for building up an intellectual growth. I have no question in my own ind, Mr. President, of the importance of teaching from nature; I have no question my own mind that nature is that from which the Creator designed we should first arn; but I am just as well convinced that no profound scholarship, no great char-ter can be built up from such instruction alone, as I am satisfied of the first fact. he child comes into the school-room from this great outside school; but it does not me into the school-room as a seeing animal alone, only capable of gaining knowl-lge of the world outside of it when seeing and classifying, as important as that rocess may be. But it comes into the school-room with passions, with affections,

with a corporeal nature as well as an intellectual one, both interlinked and joined in harmony: yet teaching alone from the one will not reach and arouse the other. I think we sometimes, I know we sometimes forget that these children have thoughts wide reaching into the department of emotional nature that can not be touched by external facts, or, if touched, can not be fully aroused by them. I am also fully convinced that, in the intellectual growth, that period comes that works of nature, glorious as they may be, will not be sufficient for the immortal mind; that it transcends and outgrows this great physical universe; and we begin to come to that at an earlier period than we may suppose, when we are brought into sympathy and connection with the thoughts of men. After all, as I have said, glorious as this universe may be, man far transcends it. His thoughts are far more magnificent, his feelings and the expressions of his feelings are far more beautiful, than anything we can find in external nature.

Then, what is the value of object lessons? It seems to me that one of the chief values is, that it introduces the child from the natural method—brings him in from nature without—and introduces him gradually into the artificial methods of the school; brings him from the consideration of nature up to the consideration of the thoughts of men, and from the consideration of the thoughts of men in some sense, to the higher appreciation and thoughts of Him who made man. I think it is not well for us who believe most earnestly in object teaching, to be indefinite in our expression as to its special place as a method of instruction. I value object teaching because it does enable the children to take hold of things that are tangible, things that are presentable, so that they may obtain an exact, clear, and well-defined notion of them. I value it because it does enable them to take up individual objects, and from their form to classify them. It is of value in all investigations in nature. I do not, however, believe it is the only means to teach how to classify. As was asked me by one of the most eminent educators of the country, "Why is not grammar just as good a thing to teach classification as these blocks and minerals, etc.?" I could only reply that it is as good, and has one feature that makes it better perhaps, but it does not come in at the point where we wish to begin teaching this classification. The child is not able to lay hold of these abstractions that are represented by words. It first classifies by forms, and afterward will take hold of these. It must, of necessity, after while take hold of these abstract methods and abstract thoughts. The one follows the other; hence, I do not think we ought to continue to follow up the method of object teaching into the highest grades of schools, and we do after a while cast aside these external object lessons as a means to be exclusively employed for the education of the mind. I believe, then, the object method with young children—I was going to say, and I think I may say—is the only means of intellectual growth; but it does not touch, or does not greatly touch that other side, the child's emotional nature. I need not be a botanist, I think, to enjoy the beauty of the plant or its flowers; I need not be an astronomer in order to enjoy the beauties of the heavens; yet to know botany and to know astronomy doubtless would add to the enjoyment I would have in contemplating both. But the emotions and passions are aroused chiefly by the contact of heart with heart, and scarcely in any other way.

I think I may say that one of the difficulties that has arrayed itself in the way of the reform, as we who believe in object lessons sometimes call it, is this, that to teach successfully these lessons, requires a greater amount of preparation on the part of the teacher, a wider range of knowledge, and greater care in giving instruction by far than the old methods. I think I may say I have seen as poor teaching—I dare not say worse—in the object method as in the old methods. I have seen object lessons given that were worthless in every respect, except that for the moment they interested the children.

en, if we are to carry this method forward, as I believe we shall,—from the
ss which has attended it where teachers themselves have been taught properly
se of the method,—no one should enter upon the work, so as to teach properly
e objective method, without himself or herself having been to some extent
ed to it,—no matter how much they may believe in the method, unless they
been trained in some way to apply the means. How is this thing to be done?
h to say that I know of no other way of doing this than by establishing in
as we ought a long time ago to have done, and it is a disgrace that we have
one, a normal school of this kind where the proper instruction shall be given.
ause.)

DR. PERRY: First, I wish to bear witness to the excellency of the report that
een made, and secondly, to say a word in respect to the importance of this
of teaching, in so much as in certain quarters it seems to be falling into dis-
e. There are reasons for this. Sometimes it has been overdone; sometimes
icious modes in carrying it out have prevailed, but I will not dwell upon this
, it has been so well hinted at in the report made.

: there is a point I think I may just touch. In almost every instance when
uccess has been reached, the matter has been crytallized—I use the word be-
it has been already used. It seems as soon as a method has been used with
ss it is then crystallized, and that is always the death of anything. Instead of
d theory we want a live process that will succeed to-day, to-morrow and al-

I think we fail because we do not follow the natural order in the instruction
ldren. The first thing to be taught them is observation. Allow me to say the
est difficulty we find in teaching pupils natural history, is because they have
een taught to observe in childhood. When you get fixed in the child the habit
ervation, then you may go a step farther—I will give it in a word—compari-

After the child has been learning day after day in this way for some time, he
dy for another step in comparison. The teacher needs, however, to be very
il that he does not go beyond the child too much, otherwise his teaching will
ne a failure. After while, however, by another step will come in discrimina-

So step by step they may be led along surely, because it is a living process,
ney go on reaching results at each stage of advancement. But great results
ot be reached if we stop right at the threshold. We begin with objects, and by
y we proceed to a comparison of thoughts, and by and by different ideas—if
lease the greatest thoughts come before us. I don't believe in shutting out
things. It would ill become me to say so, having studied them a large por-
f my life. Metaphysics, philology, history, and such things, are not to be dis-
d, but fifteen minutes a day might profitably be devoted to object lessons.
ars might for instance be asked, "what is that stone made of? "where is such
ound? and ten thousand things of the kind. I would have children collect min-
and form a cabinet. They could learn first how the minerals appeared and their
, afterwards to compare them. So with plants in the neighborhood, examin-
iem separately first, afterwards by comparison. So with animals, beginning
those common to the neighborhood first. In this way an important point
l be gained. What is it? The child is taught to observe things around him,
s beneath his feet, and things above him, and thus a center is established, a begin-
made from which he may work outward and carry out a living process by which
wers may be unfolded—not memory merely as memory, not judgment merely
gment, but all these powers will be engaged in preparing him to become a
and to compare men as he once compared plants. (Applause.)

WATKINS, of Middletown, Ohio: The able address to which we have just lis-
has no doubt been received by those who have heard it with unanimous ap-

proval. I wish, however, ladies and gentlemen, to call attention to one single point contained in it, which I conceive to be of greater importance in the advocacy of the object method of instruction, than perhaps all other points together. The difficulty with which those who have advocated this system of instruction have ever had to contend is, that teachers and the public in general will insist that these things, which we endeavor in the school room formally to teach and cultivate by means of this kind of instruction, have been taught without instruction at all. That is the old original argument of Dogberry, that reading and writing come by nature, that objects by which the child is surrounded, and the proper language to describe these objects, in their various relations, are in every child the works of nature, and need no systematic instruction. This is the real object against which we have always had to contend. The people will believe and the teachers will believe, that the children have seen those things that they have not seen, and that they have learned to observe those things they have not learned to observe, and to use words and language which those who have an extended experience in the school-room know they have not learned. I wish to call your attention to the assertion in this paper, that there are children in our schools, if I understood it correctly, of ten years of age, whose vocabulary can be comprised in two hundred words, and that there are children who come into the primary rooms at the age of six, who are incapable of expressing the most ordinary relations of objects one to another, as *over*, *under*, *beside*, &c. This assertion my experience will justify. I have never collected exactly the number of words in the vocabulary of pupils, who have been under my charge, in any department, but I have been astonished, not only in the cases of children of six or ten years of age, but astonished over and over again at the poverty of the vocabulary of those of fifteen, seventeen or nineteen years of age. It is beyond all belief; incredible that children could have heard the English language as our children have, and use it day by day for so great a length of time, without having obtained any more command over its words or idioms than is shown by our experience in the school-room. This is a sad fact which stands directly in the way as a bar to every form of instruction, whether in languages, science, or arts, and it will stand in the way as a bar to progress in the culture of pupils until we take the proper means to overcome the difficulty. I am glad we have one among us who has had the boldness to tell us exactly where our children stand, that we may hereafter adapt our instruction to their wants.

W. D. Henkle, of Salem, Ohio: I do not rise to make a speech, but to put in a disclaimer as to a statement of the reporter. Max Miller makes an assertion, upon the authority of some minister in England, to the effect, that the whole vocabulary of some of the parishoners in his parish did not exceed three hundred words. I did not believe it when I first read it, and I do not believe it now. I will tell you why. A few years ago I tried the experiment with a little girl twenty-six months' old, and found in ten days' time that she used three hundred and two different words. * * * * * * * I should not like to have counted the list of that little girl's words when she was five or six years old. I believe the statement, that children's vocabulary is so limited as has been said, is not true. No person can move around in life without using a larger vocabulary than three hundred words. I am willing that the statement may go for what it is worth, because the vocabulary of children is limited, but not to the extent stated. I think there are very few children of six years of age that have not a thousand words at command. Adults can get along very well with two or three thousand words, because each additional word increases by the rule of permutation the number of sentences that can be framed.

In carrying out a system of object lessons in school, there is great difficulty because of the lack of properly qualified teachers. If we could have John Tyndall to

ive the lessons, or persons who would have sense enough to stop when they ıould, and not tell anything that is not so, we might get along well enough. But ur teachers don't know as much as they ought, and probably in their guiding the ıildren will give utterance to things that are not true. There are very few super- ıtendents here, I think, that would be willing to give object lessons in the presence f John Tyndall. It is a great thing to feel that we are competent to give the les- ›n, and to know when to stop.

Hon. E. E. White, of Columbus, O.: By your five minutes' rule I will trust my- ›lf to say a few words on this subject. First, I wish to say that I have listened to ıite a number of papers from time to time on this subject of object teaching, and I ıink I have never listened to a discussion of it which seemed to me more satisfac- ›ry, more candid, and more thorough than the discussion to which we have listened ›-day. It seems to me that the difficulties in the way of the introduction and successful ›e of this system have been stated very clearly. I wish to emphasize one of these dif- ıculties. The aim of the object lesson, as has been stated, is to teach the child to ›e, then to think, then to express the result of the seeing and the thinking. Now, ›re is a training; there is no cramming, but it is true teaching. But now our merican schools are largely conducted on the opposite theory, that is, that the ork of the teacher is to inform the child, is to give him knowledge, to furnish him ıformation, in other words, to cram. Now, how are we to introduce it into this ›untry, unless we can change the very theory of our teaching to training? How ın we produce a truly training system? I apprehend that is one very great diffi- ılty. Our teachers need other things than the ability to inform their pupils. They ›e in the habit of teaching from books, and when they take up object lessons they nd it very difficult to give lessons on a different principle and for a different thing. he result is, that three-fourths of the object lessons are mere cramming lessons, ›d become a means for giving the children facts and information about a variety of ıings, many of which are superficial, illogical and heterogeneous. I think we ›ver shall succeed in teaching the real German method of object teaching until our achers comprehend it not only as a theory, but put it into their practice. They ust learn that the great work of the teacher is to train children, not simply to in- rm them. This idea that we are to teach the child to think, to observe, to express, ust not be expected to be done simply in the twenty-minute lesson set apart for ıe purpose, but must be the chief aim in lessons in geography, in numbers, and in l branches. You begin with the elements which the child can observe and lead to ıose things which are not observed—lead from observation to abstract truths. The ›ly way such a system as this can be made German, so to speak, is to make it a aining system. When a child goes to his teacher he is to be taken not as a vessel be filled, but as one whose powers are to be drawn out, then the object lesson will ›me in in harmony and become a success. It seems to me we are never going to ıve success in teaching object lessons in the space of twenty minutes, but adopting ıe theory, let geography, arithmetic and other things, be taught on an entirely fferent method from the present one. Now, how is this to be done? Can the asses of our teachers succeed thus? Only when they are thus imbued with the rinciple, so to speak, will they be entirely competent to conduct the whole instruc- ›n of the school upon it. Hence, here is the reason of the failure of our American stem. We try to accomplish the work by putting it into the hands of those who ıve never devoted an hour to the matter—girls in our high schools and academies, rls who have simply gone through the books, expecting them to take up a philo- phic system of teaching and carry it out. We must give them a system of train- g to prepare them for the work. They never will succeed only as they come to that ›rk with thorough preparation. We never shall succeed very largely until we take

hold of the work by training the teachers, especially training our primary teachers.

Another thing: The whole system upon which our teaching is founded, the one work, the great end, is to give useful knowledge. Hence, if you ask for an object lesson, you will get something about the trades. I heard in a school in a western city, a class trained twenty-five minutes on "how brick are made", and when the lesson ended every one must have seen that neither the teacher who handled that brick, nor the pupils who had been talked to, knew anything practically about making bricks; yet this was the idea to prepare them for the trades. Now object lessons are merely intended as a training system,—not for cramming, but as a means for sharpening the perception, giving clearness to thought, and then the outcome is a clear, beautiful expression.

DUANE DOTY, Superintendent of Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan: Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen: I was encountered a few moments ago by a gentleman in the hotel, who said I was wanted to close this meeting. Whether that is a compliment or not, I can not say. (Laughter.) I said I knew very little about the subject you were discussing, and he said that was just the reason he wished me to speak. (Renewed laughter.) To limit a man to five minutes, who is in the habit of speaking two hours, is quite confining. I may, however, say some things upon the subject.

It seems to me the whole philosophy of these object lessons may be summed up in three or four words. We have had the subject of object lessons so ably discussed this afternoon, that all must have been interested and profited. I sat and listened to the entire reading of the paper, remaining in the room until my friend Hancock arose. (Laughter.) Following the examination of objects comes language, or words or names of things. Immediately after that, we begin to classify our objects, and lastly we have history, or a record of human history of deeds. That, it seems to me, is an outline we might all adopt with a good deal of success. It is, I think, a philosophical one.

I wish to say here, that I am highly gratified with the meeting of the Association. Let me make one suggestion: that is, that this place may be chosen for the meeting of the Association next year, and that we also have the Michigan State Association meet with the Ohio Association. (Great Applause) I think that would be a capital idea. There was a time in the history of this country, that there was a state of unpleasantness existing between the state of Ohio and the state of Michigan, known as the "Toledo War." If we should meet, as I have suggested, we might bridge over that state of affairs, and produce such a feeling as would be desirable. (Laughter.)

I have heard different persons speak with regard to the difference of the European and American system of object teaching. I think human beings are all organized pretty much alike. I think the difference arises chiefly from the different degrees of civilization. In Europe, where the country has been settled for many generations, the state of civilization is very different from that in America, where we have a continent to subdue. If Michigan were as densely populated as Germany, we should have a territory sufficient for twenty-two million inhabitants, or if peopled as thickly as Ireland, we should have ten millions. This may give us an idea of the vast work we have to do. If all this country were as thickly inhabited as Massachusetts, we should have a population of six hundred millions in the United States; and our wealth, upon the basis of her wealth, would be simply fabulous, amounting to nine hundred thousand millions of dollars—a sum almost inconceivable. We need only to use our attractive power in taking possession of this continent, and subduing and building it up to make it like the countries of the Old World. And out of our schools may come a great system of teaching things and objects that may be distinctively American,—something that we may almost need to have canonized. I

think I may as well close here, while speaking of canonizing, by giving the song of the saint called "St. Jonathan", which I saw a few days ago. It ran something as follows:

"There's many an excellent saint:
St. George of the dragon and lance,
St. Patrick, so jolly and quaint,
St. Vitus, the saint of the dance,
St. Denis, the saint of the Gaul,
St. Andrew, the saint of the Scot;
But Jonathan, youngest of all,
Is the mightiest saint of the lot."

J. F. NICHOLS, President of the Michigan State Teachers' Association, was invited to speak upon the subject under discussion, but declined, remarking that the subject was in good hands in this body of live Ohio teachers.

THE NUMBER OF STUDIES AND EXERCISES THAT CAN BE JUDICIOUSLY REQUIRED OF A PUPIL IN A PUBLIC SCHOOL.

BY E. O. VAILE, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

It is sometimes a misfortune not to have a hobby; or rather not to have the power of making a temporary hobby to your purpose. I have tried hard to work this subject into one, but have failed. It has so many sides; and it refuses to be viewed from any one long enough to awaken anything like enthusiasm. For some time it has been lodged in my mind in a most unstable state of equilibrium; and has so disturbed my peace that I now gladly rid myself of it; however, with that feeling of mingled regret and mortification we experience, when compelled to desist from a worthy enterprise which we find to be beyond our powers.

The variable and unknown elements in the problem are so numerous that a general solution seems well nigh impossible. A recognized want of society is to use the hackneyed phrase, a "broad and generous culture." It surely, ought to be our effort to supply this want. But in so doing what limit can we put to the number or extent of our studies? On the other hand comes the loud complaint that the health of our children is being undermined. This must be heeded. But how can we hope to obey both voices?

Then, the capacity for work in some pupils is much greater than in others. While one boy is preparing two lessons, another, with no more trouble, will prepare three equally well. By a general rule, to restrain or stimulate one according to the capacity of the other, would be to deprive genius and health of their birthright; or to render study a vexation of spirit to mediocrity and infirmity. So, likewise, schools of the same grade vary in their aptitude for studying, according to general features and previous training. The maximum service of one will be far below the ability of the other. Both could not produce the best results working by the same standard.

Not only so, but the teacher and method of instruction come in also as disturbing factors. One teacher's requirements will demand as much more preparation and information as his idea of scholarship is higher than another's.

One method of instruction, by its simplicity and force, will enable a child to accomplish with ease double the amount which is possible by a cumbersome and indiscriminating method. Let one teacher be governed by the practice of another, and failure will be his portion. Which of these extremes shall be taken as the standard of measure in determining how much work we shall attempt to accomplish in school?

With ambition and a worthy motive, on the one side, impelling to unlimited study; and health, on the other, counseling moderation; with talent placed side by side in school with stolidity; with advanced and progressive teachers in the same grades with the Rip Van Winkles and fossils of our profession; with all these variable and opposing elements to deal with, you will discover that difficulty is to be anticipated in the thorough consideration of this subject.

Although these topics are worthy of attention, and ought to be included in the discussion of this matter, necessity and convenience alike oblige me to omit them from this investigation almost entirely; and I shall pursue it with reference to only two main ideas. First, from a physical-point of view, or as to the limitations imposed upon us in our work by the demands of health; and, in the second place, from an educational stand-point, or as to the restrictions marked out for us by the culture and character which should be furnished by the school room.

Although free to admit that many evils exist in our school system, I must confess a very slight regard for that hue and cry which now-a-days has become so common, that our schools are working our children to death. I do not believe it. Take our youth in the mass, and their health is no worse than it would be did we have no schools at all. It is quite easy to see how this complaint becomes so popular, although there is no real foundation for it. It is quite flattering to family pride to have it said that some youthful member has ruined his health by his devotion to study. It shows what fine qualities have been inherited from the original stock. And, then, it is so easy for an indulgent parent to be convinced that her poor child is studying too hard.

It has been said that we have formed the habit of regarding the youthful brain in the light of a machine that may be worked to the utmost limit of its capacity. Recreation and rest are regarded as a loss of valuable time, and the lying idle of capital that should be continually productive. There is too much reason for this criticism; but it rests wholly upon our theories and attempts, and not upon our success and results, as I shall have occasion to show hereafter. Exceptions always have more weight, in proportion, than the rule. There was more attention paid to the one sheep that was lost, than to the ninety and nine which went not astray. One child sick, possibly from overstudy, outweighs, with most people, one hundred children who have studied equally hard and are not sick. Furthermore, almost invariably, these exceptional cases will be found to be the victims of some inherited or constitutional weakness, which mental labor has not produced, although it may have aggravated it.

Based partly upon this complaint, but also upon much more reasonable grounds, which I can not notice here, the statement is often made that distinguished men whose early years were spent in an unceasing attendance upon

school, are far outnumbered by those whose means of education consisted of a few months' schooling in the winter, and a diligent use of what accidental means came in their way. So far as the fact is concerned, it may be successfully disputed; for a much greater list can be produced of eminent men, hale and hearty in their old age, who gave promise of their after greatness by hard and persevering study as school boys. As to the explanation of the fact, it is much more reasonable to maintain that these self-made men have achieved their distinction in spite of their deficiencies of education, than in consequence of such deficiencies.

At all events, these jealous guardians of the public health against the evils of mental labor, must admit that there are two sides to this question of the effects of hard study, though I do not mean by that unreasonable study. Undoubtedly "mental exercise" has a very decided effect upon the body. Especially is it so in childhood. The heart over-excited in a child, will become dilated; the bone on which unnatural pressure is exerted, bends. The brain, being subject to the same laws as other organs, must be affected in a similar manner by unnatural exertion. The testimony of writers upon this subject is unanimous, that the strongest brain will fail under the continuance of intense thought. But it is far from true that average school children exercise anything that may be said to approach to this intense thought. Long and hard lessons will do as a text for complaints; but their actual effect upon health is very slight, simply because they are not learned. No amount of pressure, either of authority, of rewards, or of applause, will stimulate Young America to exert his brain to an alarming extent. He knows too well the value of labor, to wear himself out for such trifling considerations. Teachers need not flatter themselves that, by lessons long or short, few or many, they regulate the amount of mental labor their scholars perform. That is actually determined at home, where there is ever found an indulgent task-master. The pupil has on his side the decided sentiment of society against the severe and exacting teacher; and there is little need of anxiety upon our part lest scholars shall be too studious.

In connection with this point, I can not refrain from alluding to an institution, which, to a great extent, is responsible for the opinion which is so prevalent, that a natural antagonism exists between the mind and the body; that the exercise of the brain necessarily operates against physical well-being. I refer to the violent gesticulations and contortions of the body so familiar to us under the name of gymnastics. I can see that they may have some value as a means of school discipline and physical culture; but upon the general argument that they are essential to counteract the effects of close application and confinement, I fail to discover the slightest necessity for them. By resorting to these exercises we confess that we have imposed too heavy a burden for our children to bear: as the driver, by his unreasonable load, is compelled to allow his team to stop every few rods to "blow."

But although I do not admit that real hard study prudently expended, is injurious to health, or that attention should be given to this complaint in assigning our studies, still prudence determines a limit to the amount of labor which we ought to expect from our pupils.

By the common experience of literary men, men accustomed to laborious thought, six or seven hours is looked upon as a full day's work for the brain. It is quite easy to give a long list of men who, year after year, have devoted double this amount of time to the studio or laboratory without apparent injury. But they possessed remarkable constitutions as well as remarkable intellects. The limit I have named is recognized by the generality of students as one over which they dare not step with impunity. Admitting that this is the greatest amount of daily labor which adults can endure, that for youth must at least be no greater, even after making allowance for the less intensity of their effort. In early childhood, and while so much of the vital energy is required for the growth and development of the body, the maximum quantity ought evidently to be less; probably not more than four or five hours out of twenty four. Now as to the number of recitations which can be judiciously attempted in this time. In fact, from the beginning of the child's school life, up to a point which it is not easy to fix, this question resolves itself simply into the one I have just answered;—How many hours can a child's mind be actively employed, while his body is left comparatively unemployed, without detriment? At this early age to the child there is little or no classification in knowledge. All subjects are alike to him. Without aid he is powerless to obtain information from the printed page. The teacher must be his constant companion and source of knowledge. I prefer to look upon the time of scholars at that stage as spent in one continued exercise or recitation, embracing whatever of variety and human culture the teacher is able to furnish. But gradually emerging from this period comes a time or condition of mind, when knowledge in the child's comprehension separates itself into classes, or subjects, which assume a relative importance. We will presume this period to be fairly reached at the age of ten or eleven years. Then it becomes a question how many of these branches of knowledge shall be examined by the scholar daily. In determining how much and what can be accomplished at school, our authorities have certainly not been always guided by reason. It is never a question with our people, "how well?" but always "how much?" or "how quick?" and it is as perceptible in our education as in other departments. It is clearly shown in the courses of study for our schools and colleges. As a general rule they are far beyond what is actually and well accomplished. For children in our grammar and intermediate schools we will say that five, or at the utmost six, hours is a fair day's work if properly applied. It is as much as most physicians will say is compatible with the laws of physical growth and health in childhood. The length of recitations varies from thirty to forty-five minutes. Take thirty five minutes, which I think is below the average length, and certainly less than it should be Now, how many recitations of thirty five minutes each can be prepared and recited in six hours? This question, though a simple one, is not so easily answered as it may seem. All the varying elements which I mentioned in the beginning enter into it very largely. But let us take an average case. In all our graded schools, I believe, there are subjects taught which are judged not to demand any preparation for recitation. Among these are writing, drawing, music and object lessons. Suppose we allow to all of these one and one-half hours daily—little enough time. We then

e left four and a half hours for the subjects which must be studied. At very least calculation, it takes as long to prepare a lesson as it does to re- it. This gives two and a quarter hours for each department, or barely e for four recitations and their preparation. But it is to be borne in mind : we have taken the maximum length of study-day with the minimum length ecitation, and minimum allowance for accomplishments, as we will call n for convenience, and still we have not quite time enough for four recita- s, supposing all of the six hours to be actually devoted to successful study recitation. But over and above this there are compositions or declama- s to be prepared in nearly all schools; there are problems or other work ɔe copied from the blackboard, explanations to be obtained of difficult ıts, poor or lost lessons to be made up, and many similar but important rruptions to regular studies to be provided for. Thus we have not time ı for four recitations. Three well prepared, in addition to all this extra k, will consume much more than six hours. From the rules of the school rd of Toledo, I find that only three principal studies in the high school for y recitation will be taken by a pupil, except on the written request of the ɜnt, and with the consent of the teachers and superintendent. At the last reg- meeting of the teachers of the Woodward and Hughes high schools of ɔinnati, a course of study was recommended to the high school board for ıdoption, upon the basis, and with the distinct declaration, that no pupil l be required to pursue more than three principal studies at one time. I ıot know that this course has yet been confirmed; and in its practical ·ation some serious difficulties are foreseen. But these steps are certainly ıe right direction.

regret that my efforts have been in vain to obtain from other cities cor- onding facts in reference to their schools. So far, then, as regards the n of physical health, it is my opinion that our ordinary school work should demand over six hours daily of fair mental labor. While scholars of ıter maturity of mind and body, as in the highest grades, may possibly be to stand somewhat more than this amount, those of the lower grades are able to stand so much. Upon this basis not over three recitations should ındertaken, which require an ordinary amount of preparation, leaving ı one hour to an hour and a half for all other work, including singing, ct lessons, &c. I am aware that all of our schools attempt more than and it may be thought successfully. And as it is not admitted that the th of our children is seriously impaired by this work, it may be asked, hy place such limits?" This leads to the second part of my subject. So this paper has endeavored to establish, somewhat theoretically, what is a onable requisition upon the time and strength of school children; inti- ing that it is useless to demand more, as the work is not done when an ·-amount is assigned. Proof of this is not wanting. In the first place, in ɜ cases out of ten, it is physically impossible for children to actually per- ı the work required. Imagine yourselves, with only a child's advancement nowledge, set down to learn a lesson in reading, one in spelling, one in ɣraphy, one in arithmetic, one in grammar, and one in history. Would be able, within a reasonable number of hours, to bring to bear that

thorough concentration of mind necessary to *master* these lessons? In the second place, the inefficiency of our pupils at the time of promotion proves that they have not done their work well. How common is this want of strength discovered by the final and searching test! In the third place, their own confession proves it. How many children can put the responsibility of poor lessons upon sensible parents who sent them to bed before they were through studying? I take the liberty, for which I ought to apologize possibly, of alluding to some facts which came to my knowledge lately, since they bear so directly upon this point. In the intermediate schools of Cincinnati, the child's whole school day of six hours is occupied by actual recitations, except less than forty minutes; and this forty minutes and more is spent by the pupils in making up lessons, and in copying extempore work from the blackboard. Thus all the preparation for the immense amount of work of the day has to take place the previous evening. Now, where emulation is so strong as in large cities, and under the stimulus of the approaching examination for admission to the high school, it is quite reasonable to expect the very largest amount of outside study. Circumstances can hardly be imagined which would secure more.

You will be surprised, then, at the result of an investigation, which showed that, even under this intense pressure, the average amount of time spent out of school hours was only one hour and forty eight minutes. The maximum and minimum time, each spent by single pupils, was four hours and a half. Taking into consideration that this is probably an overestimate, rather than an underestimate, and the nature of home study, surrounded by the family and other distracting conditions, what must have been the quality of so much work accomplished in so short a time? I give this illustration of what nearly every town in the state can likewise illustrate, simply because it has fallen under my own observation. I have confined myself to the use of the phrase "work well done." It means more than I fear would be understood by the word "thorough." That lessons are memorized is true. That they are glibly recited is true; that teachers are satisfied is true. But this may all be, and still the work not be well done. A mirror gives a faithful but fleeing image of every passing object. So the works of memory, faithful for the time being, do not abide. Its coins are counterfeits. They should be banished from the school-room. Out of mercy to the inevitable parrot, I will not attempt to say how utterly valueless is mere repetition. Our teachers are loth to probe to the bottom. If the surface is fair it seems sufficient. But "well done" means images that last; it means concentration and reflection, not flippancy and shallowness; it means solid work at the bottom, trusting appearances to take care of themselves; it means the very least amount of memory, and the very greatest amount of common sense. "Well done" is the result of constitutional treatment, and not of local application. It is an actual growth from within out, and not an embellishment or artifice. In the nature of things this kind of product can not be turned out upon the scale we attempt. Had we the power and inclination to force it, with our present courses of study, our school-rooms would become juggernauts. We try to do too much. Our children are forced through the forms of education, but they do not obtain its substance.

are crammed, but they do not grow; and this constitutes a stronger
ient than physical health, why our attempts should come within the
s of possibility, or approach the limit I have named. But the evils of
ver-crowding process are manifest, not only in thus laying a most faulty
ation for education, but also in destroying the character of our children.
and cheating are seldom practiced just for the love of the exercise.
is generally some real or fancied necessity for them. Pupils find their
t efforts fruitless to accomplish tasks set before them; and ingenuity
itself to achieve by strategy or dishonesty where other means have

is the baser passions of childhood find abundant stimulus, and the fruit in
ife is most pernicious. When the demand is fairly within the child's
s, depravity finds it hard to overcome the common instinct of honesty.
a scholar can get his own lesson, he will rarely attempt to copy. But
ys and girls in our public schools, who can withstand the temptation to
in this matter, belong to the class who are supposed to die young. But
as are these evils, there is still a greater one, largely attributable to this
s system. It is so multiform but subtile, that I find great difficulty in
ing it; but it is wide-spread and serious. In studying it I have become
t convinced that children possess two natures or spheres of existence.
ater or coarser one only is impressed by our ordinary address. But to
the inner nature, the real consciousness, takes time and effort. Ordi-
nstruction seems obstructed and lodged in the outer sphere. Only the
child seems to see, and to hear, and to feel. No impression seems deep
h to reach the inner being. But it is these inner faculties, the citadel
e sense and reason, which must be open wide before the child really
. The shaft must go to the core that would be effective. Most children
middle grades seem to have their outer sphere full of facts, but not set
nough to become perceptive. They glibly repeat forms and processes,
ven use them readily, without comprehending them. They will confi-
use words and sentences without realizing that they do not grasp the
They seem to live and act a borrowed life, in the thoughts and words
ers. They do not become conscious of any powers within themselves by
knowledge may become their own. They seem like animals stuffed
ood, no portion of which enters the circulation, and builds up the tissues.
know of no study but the service of the outer, coarser organs; that ma-
effort, so to speak, which finds so much aid in mere repetition, in the
muttering of the lips, and other exterior and physical conditions; they
ot discovered the opening and traversing of the inner channels of the
they have not arrived at that attention and concentration of mind of
even childhood is capable, and which has no connection, simple iteration;
o not manifest that which distinguishes reason from instinct and imita-
It is one of the greatest lessons we, as teachers, have yet to learn, that
f higher importance *how* we teach, than *what* we teach; that we make
ter senses convey accurate and full impressions to the inner being, than
e tack to the exterior of the child, as it were, a multitude of valuable facts,
ich ever remain to him a foreign possession. When the outer faculties do

thus enter into fellowship and communion with the inner ones, and the child really becomes a thinking being, I can find no name for the process so fitting as a second birth, an intellectual regeneration; and many living thus only half created, I fear, never come to this salvation. But still it is not rare to witness this sudden transformation, when the intellect seems to blossom at once into a new and deeper life. The mind seems to recover from a state of semi unconsciousness. New light seems to dawn upon it. Processes which have been performed time and again without actual volition, I might say, take a new meaning. A new force seems to bring into life the actual powers of the mind.

But there should be no necessity for this second birth. As by proper training children may grow into a full christian life, without the process of conversion, so, by proper teaching, from the beginning, ideas will come to the mind with their proper force. Then intuitively the mind would distinguish what it fully comprehends from what it does not. That border land between ignorance and knowledge, which is such an impregnable and prolonged retreat for most children in school life, would become divided between the two kingdoms by a clear and distinct line. Reflection would not then signify aimless thought wandering at will; but the concentration of intelligence which would dissolve all obstacles; comprehension would no longer be the shallow telling of the surface, but that deeper turning of the soil which reaches down into the actual substance of our being, that sub-soil where rests the genuine strength and forces of our character. It is this thoroughness, this complete consciousness, this genuine education which we so much lack. But it will ever elude our grasp while our studies do not conform to the power and possibilities of the child. We must reach the child's real self. Each idea must penetrate and have *time* to do its work, or sensitiveness will give place to callousness and mental stupor. I am aware that this evil may be traced to other causes; but it is chiefly the delirium caused by the multiplicity and confusion of our studies; it is the semi-trance produced by superficial and careless and hasty scanning; it is the day-dreaming, the reverie indulged because we do not, or can not, really rouse the slumberer.

Permit me to close with a brief summary of the chief points presented.

The difficulties in the way of a full and satisfactory discussion of this subject are not few. The intention has been to deal with only two prominent points, viz: the demands of physical health, and the demands of mental health, leaving out of view all secondary questions.

The attempt has been made to show that slight consideration is due to the popular complaint that our pupils are overworked. A passing objection is lodged against the common system of gymnastics, because they are a useless interruption, and because they give such countenance to the complaint before referred to, by the reasons generally given for their exercise.

From a few of the many considerations which might be presented, from four to seven hours, according to age and other conditions, is recognized as the limit to the amount of daily labor which can be judiciously required.

With this point established or assumed, the maximum number of daily recitations, which can be prudently attempted by a pupil, is certainly not greater than five, three of which have to be prepared by a fair amount of study. Con-

firmation of this opinion is found in the declared views of some school authorities. Under the second point of inquiry, an abridgement of our attempted school work is found very necessary, from other considerations purely moral or intellectual. This argument is based upon a statement previously made, that, generally speaking, our school work is not well done. Proof of this is found in the fact, that to do so much work well is physically impossible;—in the facts brought to light in examinations for promotion;—in the declarations of pupils themselves, as learned upon inquiry.

In addition to this superficial education, which it seems impossible for us to avoid with our overcrowded programmes, greater evils of our present system manifest themselves in the bad effects upon the character of our children, and in the perversion of intellect which is so common and fatal to genuine study and genuine scholarship.

For these reasons, as well as others, the demand is imperative that our courses of study should be abridged to somewhere near the limits I have named. How this may be done, and the best manner of doing it, the length of this paper forbids to discuss.

DISCUSSION OF E. O. VAILE'S PAPER.

M. F. COWDERY: We have a usage, Mr. President, that after a paper is presented some one previously appointed shall open the discussion. I scarcely see the necessity of its application on this occasion. It seems to me the subject has been opened and presented to the attention of teachers, and I do not see how I can do very much in presenting it to your attention and for your edification. As it is in accordance with the programme, however, I will occupy a very few moments in calling your attention to two or three points. Were there more time for longer discussion, I would extend my remarks. We are to consider the number of studies necessary and proper for a school. As we understand it now, there may be too few studies in a school, and there may be too many. I know schools where they have only reading and spelling, with little else alternating. I would certainly think they are then too few studies proper for a school. I shall regard these points separately. Our speaker has very guardedly given the number from three to five. Perhaps I should dissent from that. My reason for this dissension you will gather from my remarks. I am inclined to think that there is no absolute number to be reached; that while we may have reading, spelling, writing and arithmetic, geography and grammar, we may have sometimes too many, sometimes too few; that the number of studies must depend very much upon the skill of the scholar with the studies pursued as presented either by the teacher, or oral instructor. Now, I come to a very great and important point, one alluded to by President Tappan yesterday—the importance of methods of instruction. I hold, teachers, that methods of instruction may be very attractively presented, either by the teacher or in the text books, as for instance the presentation of the subject of geography in our Peter Parley books. I have seen men and women sit around the fire-place and be equally interested with hearing children reading Peter Parley, because there was something attractive about it, and not wearying to the intellectual faculties. Now, I say that the number of studies, and the methods of instruction, proper and possible to be pursued, is one of the greatest subjects for all the teachers of Ohio to discuss. I agree with friend Tappan that it is a great loss to the State of Ohio, because teachers do not understand the best methods of instruction. When we are following modes of instruction in

etymology, for instance, committing and reciting the conjugations, going on with no life and soul in the exercise, we are certainly not following the best methods of instruction. We are doing something worse than losing time to the scholar—I mean financially considered. We are doing immensely greater loss than that; we are giving them a disrelish for all pertaining to the study, if our method of instruction is poor and lifeless. You are certainly not quickening the perception of scholars; you are doing them more mischief every hour because you are not handling the study very skillfully. I should say the number of studies should be very limited under such a teacher. But I can imagine a teacher so skillful that he can present the subject in such a way, that with every moment it will be as clear and vivid as a panorama. If a teacher is accomplished, and gives his lesson from botany or natural history, on some familiar subject, the pupil follows him with some delight, and the study is not so difficult. I think it possible, that in a class taught by such a teacher, a larger number than five studies could be reached. Were the teachers of Ohio here in great numbers, this subject is of sufficient importance to engage all our time in discussing it—that is, methods of instruction. It is unfortunate for the finances of the state, in the expenditure of the school money of the state—seven or eight millions of dollars—that so much is lost by improper teaching. We might just as well have it worth fourteen millions as seven, if teachers were better prepared with better methods. All this bears in my opinion on the number of studies proper to be introduced. I have no hopes of doing any considerable justice to the subject, but how shall we approach it a little nearer to something practical? We say of a man that goes to work and chops or saws wood all day, and has to come home in the evening and chop or saw wood for his fire at home, that his work is rather hard, because it is the same kind of labor. But the sawing of wood after a man has been walking about the streets collecting some bad debts may do very well; that is a diversity. In this case the one set of muscles may be at rest while another is being employed. Now, in a certain sense that is true of our mental faculties. We may have our imagination exercised, our memory exercised, and may repeat lessons from memory; or do something where memory may be more largely employed. Again, we may do something to employ the other faculties—reason, reflection, observation, or whatever it may be called. Now, if in making up the studies for the day it can be so arranged that any set of faculties may be resting like the muscles of the body referred to, while others may be exercised, it will be better. [A page of the reporter's copy is here missing.]

E. E. White: I do not know that the association is in the mood to discuss this question, but it seems to me that it ought at least to have an earnest hour devoted to it, and in doing so there is no danger of our being overworked. This subject ought to be thoroughly discussed. There is an apparent inconsistency between the statements of the first part of the excellent paper just read, and those of the second, which do justify the popular feeling that the pupils in our schools are overtasked. This is a point that deserves serious attention from every teacher in the state. The statement that the intermediate schools of Cincinnati put the entire study of the pupils out of school hours, shows that the demands of the health of our children have not yet received proper attention. In families with which I am acquainted, I have known cases of over-study. I know one girl, a daughter of a friend, who rises at least four mornings of the week at five o'clock, and studies perhaps three hours to prepare her lessons for the day. She has stood well in her class, and has had good health; but most girls would be obliged to leave school were they to attempt such a course. I do not believe that the breaking down of pupils' health is due so much to the severity of thought or the amount of thought bestowed upon the studies, as to the amount of time spent, and the kind of study. For instance, a girl sitting down at night with two lessons to prepare, with all the nervous anxiety

that can come from the marking of those lessons, spends, it may be, two or three hours, and, as a result suffers, not from the thinking she has bestowed on the lessons, but from the nervous condition under which that thinking is done. I fear that the high schools in the state are overtaxing the nervous system of a considerable number of girls, and I think this is also true of some boys. If we should examine the individual condition of every pupil in our schools, especially in the upper grades, I think we would find too many cases of over-study. Society adds its unreasonable demands to those of the schools. Here is a girl with a party on hands in the evening, and her lessons must be prepared in the morning. She rises at six o'clock, studies before breakfast with a nervous feeling of fear; then from breakfast until school, and from school time until the recitation. There is no girl, unless she is made of iron, that can stand such demands as these; yet our American girls are permitted to enter society at fourteen and fifteen, some of them attending parties two evenings a week, with the work of the school upon them. The result must be great harm. Instead of the health of pupils being a subject of little concern to our teachers, it is, to my mind, the very subject that demands the greatest attention. I do not know when parents and teachers will come to some understanding respecting the amount of social life, which pupils shall be permitted to enjoy while in school, but this conflict between society and schools is now doing much harm.

PROF. PERRY: One word in regard to the cause of over-action, and the evil that comes from it. I wish to indicate now especially in reference to the student. Suppose the student has been diligently, energetically occupied in mind, say six hours, until exhausted, I would simply raise the question, if he come into all these violent exercises which are usually indulged in—if it is indulgence sometimes in the gymnasium—whether he has not a double burden upon the system? If we look at it, I believe it is simply so. What does that pupil need? A gentle recreation, going out and gathering flowers with his teacher, picking up pebbles by the lake side. Something of that kind will be gently exhilarating, that the system be not burdened so as to fall. When he is not studying, let him go into the exercise with all his heart, mind, powers of physcal freedom, taking care of course not to overtask himself; but when he is studying in this way, and is so occupied that he is nearly exhausted, I simply raise the query, whether he is not sinning against his own body, by attempting to take another burden? Another point: there is a great deal said at the present time, that methods are everything, that what comes to the mind is a matter of little importance. I do not wish to discuss the point, but simply to suggest something. It is this: I will take a simple illustration. I know of a naturalist, one of the most distinguished naturalists living, who said that in early life he devoted years to a single study, but it happened to be under a relation that would not develop great results. What was the result? He got some discipline; but suppose it had been taken from another point of view, which would have brought all the great results possible, you would have a good method directly brought before the mind under relations which would have told upon the whole generation. I suggest whether it be not so, that good methods will be brought out under such relations, and that good results also will follow, not one alone but both? We are very apt to talk about methods, as the box referred to in yesterday's discussion, as if the box had but one side. Everything has two sids of course, but many of us get but one side. One word in regard to what is to be taught in the lesson, and what we may draw as an inference from it; and I think from our own convictions we must have a good system set forth. I believe the schools in the vicinity of Boston are running themselves into the ground, by trying to work all their pupils up to a system, spoiling their health, as we are spoiling the health of our pupils in this country. This railroad process of trying to come up to some point must be corrected; we must have some reference to adaptation. We have a good system, but I believe we

need a teacher in every school, to know each single individual, and the first question is, how much can that pupil bear physically without injury? and second, how much can he do well intellectually? We must bring these two things to bear, not in a mass, but by discriminate action, in reference to each pupil; bring them into exercise so as to diversify. We can not have an iron system carried out without destruction in every direction, but on the contrary, we are elevating the teacher; his discretion, his prudence, his sagacity; all these are brought into requisition in every thing he does, not according to a system gotten up by great men, and which is only theoretically true; and secondly, we are bringing out the powers of the children. When the teacher works thus upon each child, that child is going to learn, and his powers are brought out under some influence that animates the teacher. The *personnel* of the teacher is carried over to the mind, heart and whole being of the pupils, and the pupils do not learn mechanically, but drink in his spirit, and come to act in consonance with him.

W. D. HENKLE: I assume we ought to take for sleep, etc., eight or nine hours a day. Take nine from twenty-four and fifteen remain. Hence we ought to study fifteen hours a day. Thinking is study, and I pity the fellow that lives any portion of his waking hours without thinking. The problem is, what ought we to think about? The thought brought out by Mr. White is an important one: so that of Mr. Cowdery. It tires one to try to do something that he can not. We seldom get tired in any study in which we are successful, but we get wearied when the thing gets tangled up, and then we want something else. Another consideration: if the pupil gets converted, as stated in the paper, study is pleasant; an hour's study is an hour's delight. This is the problem, how to get pupils to working in a channel in which they are interested, in which they feel a delight, and the more delight there is, the less danger there will be of the health's breaking down.

JOHN HANCOCK: Sir, no one man values more than I, methods of instruction, and no one values more than I, the value of physical culture; and I believe a lack of this is one of the great wants of the present American education. So far from agreeing with the report in regard to gymnastics, I would have far more of it. I would not only have the walks in the field, and those pleasant exercises, but I would have those exercises that invigorate and develop every muscle in the body, and produce, to some extent, such splendid specimens of humanity as were produced by the institutions of ancient times. Such exercises I believe are more needed in America with our climate than they are any where, and I believe also that much of the evil effects, as far as they are truly evil effects, attending our public-school education, is attributable to that source. But, Mr. President, I do not believe that study is unhealthy. I lose confidence in the wisdom that made us, should I entertain such an opinion. I agree heartily with the gentleman who preceded me, that drudgery will always be unhealthy, but that study, that growth of mind, that results in growth of character, can never injure the physical health of any one, pursued with any degree of moderation. I can not believe, I do not believe either, that the young men, lads and lassies, that are in our public schools are more unhealthy than the generality of children that are out of school. My experience has taught me the contrary. I taught in the same school ten years, having under my charge not less than five hundred pupils at any time. I recollect of but two deaths in all that ten years, of children in the public school. The fact is, we may talk about study, and beat about the bush, but, so long as our minds are as at present, there never will come a time when we can have thorough and profound scholarship without work, and it seems to me to have been one of the schemes of educators of modern times to invent some kind of method, or some kind of system of education, that shall be mechanical in its operation, and will grind out great men, and ennoble our women by the same sort of pro-

in which they themselves shall be totally inactive. I think we shall always hard work, where we have great scholarship, and I believe that is one of the ons that in America we have not so great scholarship as they have in Germany. lieve it is one of the German maxims, that a great scholar is one that has ability t without moving—sit down to his book and study there. I know that there are results arising from confining children together in the school-room ill-ventilated. iow that very well, and we need more skill in the construction of our school es. If the same ingenuity we have displayed in attempting to rear up scholars out study, were expended upon better means for building school houses, I apend we should reach the result sooner than by the course we are pursuing. I e, Mr. President, to direct one word in defense of what I believe to be the only iod of securing large scholarship.

N. HARTSHORN: I have of my own some positive idea on this subject. I have ideas that are of some value, which I have collected. Perhaps I can not better, few moments, give some things that may be valuable to the teachers here, than to present from memory some facts that I collected four or five years ago. When inted by this Association to gather some facts, and this in connection also with College State Association, and, combining the two, I took the pains to get all the ogues of pretty much all the colleges in this country, and all the high schools ; took the pains to visit as many as I could in this country. About the same I took the pains to collect the catalogues from other institutions, also visiting as well as lower schools, and I wish simply to give this summary of about what I ve you will find to be true, should you yourself go through the same operation. ar as the number of studies is concerned, you will find the high schools and ges of this country and of Europe take about three studies, three principal studies, basis for a day, making about fifteen recitation studies for the week, exclusive terary performances, lectures, examinations, etc. There are some schools that get above this, and some below this. In some terms their studies will not run three; in some, they will go over. In colleges you will usually find that about terms of this kind of work will constitute a college year or university year, about four of these years constitute what they call their college courses, on the osition that in the common school, where they have studied, say as high as metic, grammar, geography, reading, penmanship, drawing, etc., they will be a year and a quarter to a year and three-quarters, a preparatory work of three es a day and five days of the week, twelve of these weeks constituting a term. consulting, however, with teachers and professors in institutions, you will get nimus of instruction better than from their catalogues. Sometimes in looking their course of study, you will imagine it is more than it is; sometimes less. ou wish to study methods, you must go to the living teacher, sit down and talk matter over, and here will come in various conditions, various explanations, limons, etc. Hence I would very greatly urge upon my brother teachers, if you e to improve by the experience of others, to go into their schools, see them , talk with those teachers as brothers or sisters that desire to learn, improving their successes and failures, and being honest enough to acknowledge wherein ail or succeed, and strive here to come to such methods and adopt such systems ll practically be the best thing for the pupils themselves. I think there are r over-worked, particularly their nervous systems, and I believe we need vari- I do not believe in the one-study system, as sometimes advocated, nor do I ve, on the other hand, either extreme should be avoided. I believe we must inice along in the day vigorous physical exercises; we must also introduce recrea- The mind needs recreation as well as the body. I will emphasize the word. ust have *amusements*. My mind has undergone great change on that subject in

the past four or five years. But we do not understand them as Americans should. We frequently run into abuses; when we run into amusements, we frequently run into excesses, which should be avoided, and frequently into those things that involve a great deal of immorality. We should take amusement right into the school. We know amusement will alleviate that mental taxation, or nervous fatigue, which brother White referred to. We must avoid this nervous prostration: it must be avoided; and this hot-house method, into which we are introducing our pupils, is killing them, sending them to their graves, and if we desire to have them grow up men and women, we must develop symmetrically their nature, physical, intellectual, social, and moral; we must cultivate their conscience as well as judgment. Nothing is more important than free thought, independent thought. Teach the pupils to think for themselves, and understand why this is done, and if they have opinions different from yours, let them have them. You are only responsible for their instruction. Give your own views, but still leave much to the independent thought of the child. In teaching you can direct their thoughts, correct their errors better by giving them the reason. Simply instruct them as to the right and the wrong, and leave them the responsibility of choosing.

JOHN OGDEN: I do not believe I can make a speech in five minutes. There is a thought I want to suggest. I think friend Hancock will accept the difference between drudgery and work.

HANCOCK: Yes, sir.

OGDEN: Then I want to appeal to this body of teachers whether it is not pleasant to work? How is it, brother Henkle?

HENKLE: It is owing to what the work is.

OGDEN: For instance, go into the harvest field and take up the cradle, and engage in physical exercise; does it not give a glow of pleasure?

HENKLE: It does not to me.

OGDEN: Then I must pronounce you physically lazy.

HENKLE: I accept it.

HANCOCK: We have a better phrase than that: we say of a man in that condition that he is "constitutionally tired."

OGDEN: We make a distinction, sometimes, between weariness and fatigue. That is where we are liable to make a mistake, and where our ideas are running right or running wrong. Work is a pleasure to a healthy constitution. I speak of physical work now. The fact of our enduring, of our contending, proves this. We were made to contend, and gain physical strength in labor. So it is mentally; we were made to labor, and when labor degenerates into drudgery, it is where it is wrong.

The report bore that peculiar feature about it, intimating that school work is drudgery. My dear teachers, have we not got out of that period of thought? Have we been talking a quarter of a century, and not got beyond the idea that it is not a pleasure to labor—a pleasure to study? It was indicated by friend Henkle, when he said it was a pleasure to find out new things. It is intellectual pleasure, and develops new strength and growth. What I want to get at is this: Our mode of instruction should adapt itself to the wants of the children, and to every stage of their growth and strength, so that physically and intellectually there shall always be harmony. Then our work will not be drudgery, but pleasure; nevertheless, hard work at the same time. I have seen scholars in my own school glow with pleasure, while the mind was worked up to the most intense labor; to use a homely expression, you could hardly "choke the student off." I would suggest this,—it is one of my impractical suggestions, I suppose,—in order to find out just what scholars can bear, and what they need most, and what we as teachers need most, as an experiment, if

ess should appropriate fifty thousand dollars to locate one school at Put-in-Bay, er on the Atlantic sea coast, one at San Francisco, and another in some of the tates, appropriating a sufficient amount to make this practical, to experiment uch pupils can endure, and, at the same time, feel this pleasure. But reports up from time to time, as to what constitutes a course of study. I say the curriculum of our college study should be revised, improved, and made better ed to the wants of the children. I suggest this as one of the things that might ly be done. I do not suppose it can be done, but if it could be done, taking ildren at the very earliest time when children begin to learn—that is one we do not understand, but they begin at their very earliest existence,—if we follow it up, and record the changes in the way, the indications as far as human ot is able to record them as to the result, then bring it before the Association, egard to these things, I think we could come to some result. But I tell you lked of these things over twenty-five years ago, and have not come to any re-et.

AY: We would if we had the children.

EN: They are abundant, and can be furnished gratis, too. I believe this is lea: this is a pleasurable work, and should be the principle to guide us; it l be our test, our thermometer, as it were. I believe the very best methods of ng children mentally, is that which will best educate them physically and ly, so that there shall be no antagonism; because there is antagonism if we te them backward; but if we go in accordance with the laws of nature and of n this matter, the whole mind and body and the whole man would be symmet-y and beautifully educated, without any drudgery, but with a great deal of work.

D. HENKLE: Years ago I heard of the same pleasurable work, combining ire and all this with work; still the practical question comes, how to make it What is the element, the distinctive pleasurable element?

N. HARTSHORN: I used the word amusement, and I did not understand it until t into the schools of Germany, through the lower, intermediate grades as well colleges and universities. We have got to introduce that here; they call them ments, and make use of them; so the pleasure is felt and realized, and we as icans may have them, too.

E. WHITE: I fear I have been misunderstood, and wish permission to explain. who have been in the state for a number of years, know that I have very ntly written, and as strongly as I could write, respecting the study of school en, and have always taken the position that study did not injure health; that not the study but the condition of the system that is ruining our children. h to say that we have one problem in this state and country, which I think our rs, as a class, are not considering. We are introducing into our schools a large er of exercises, not studies but exercises, which are conducted by the teacher or otherwise, consuming the time of the pupils, which formerly was devoted ual study; that you all recognize. When I was a teacher in Cleveland years here were not exceeding forty minutes a day given to drawing, music, penman-etc. Now in our instruction there are so many extra exercises, that really, in of the schools, the children have but little time to study, and I think we are ng to the extreme largely, and perhaps it is measurably certain of lifting study ool hours from the pupil, and occupying the whole attention of the teacher. I we have got to take Mr. Hancock's idea, that our pupils must study, and there means of omitting the brain work; and the question is not how many exer-we shall have in school to-day, but how many lessons are to be studied thor-

oughly and earnestly. Now, as pupils have not as much time by an hour as formerly to study silently in the school-room, are not we in danger, and have not we experienced that danger, of putting too much time for study out of school? That is the fact, and I think we are not going to make stronger and better scholars by any process like that. How much hard study should we have out of school? In looking this thing over carefully, and examining the matter in different states, I have come to the conclusion that our high schools ought to afford time for the preparation of two lessons a day in school hours, and one good lesson, requiring an hour to an hour and a half, is enough to put on the child out of school. I do not fall in with this idea, that our children are dying because they think too much, or study too much. It is not that. They take home three lessons. What do they do? They fuss over them; there is no thinking over them. "I can not possibly get over this, but I must do it." The children are trying to do three things. They can not do them. They can only do one thing at one time. Hence we are not making scholars as we think we are. There is a great deal of fussy study, but not hard work accompanied with hard feeling.

O. N. HARTSHORN: How many hours a day ought a healthy boy or girl of fourteen or fifteen years of age do such thinking as you speak of?

WHITE: I should say in the high school they should spend from three to four hours a day, with the other school work; this would be sufficient. Three hours a day of study is enough. I think if our children would do some good old-fashioned work, helping their mothers who are killing themselves, they would do better. (Applause.) I think three hours of earnest study is sufficient, which, together with four hours of recitation, will make seven hours, which is certainly enough time.

R. MCMILLAN: I wish to speak of a single fact, in reference to one point of the report. Mr. Ogden expects it would be a great thing if a certain experiment could be made. Let me say I am sure that experiment is being made every day, and I have watched it with a great deal of interest. A number of years ago, when I was doing my best to educate the young people—educate them as well as I could—I heard the cry everywhere, "You are killing the children." I was satisfied we were not killing them in our town. I presumed it must be my friends Cowdery, Harvey, and others. I was sure we were not killing them at home. Some five years ago I placed myself in such a position that I could look outside of my own work, and see what others were doing. Since that time I have looked into a number of high schools, female seminaries, and colleges, and in a great many of them—most of them—I paid particular attention to this fact—the apparent health of the students of the highest departments; and I decided they were the healthiest looking and the best looking boys and girls I found anywhere. I took particular pains to inquire of the instructors, or ask them to point out to me the scholars who had come up from the primary departments, and had gone through the regular severe course and were now in the highest departments, and almost without exception they pointed out to me the best and healthiest looking scholars. I have come to the conclusion that we are not killing boys and girls in Ohio. They may be doing it in Boston.

OHIO SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRD ANNUAL MEETING, HELD AT PUT-IN-BAY, JULY 2D, 1872.

The Association was called to order at 10 o'clock A.M., by Supt. A. T. Wiles, of Zanesville.

Prayer was offered by Rev. G. O. Fay, of Columbus.

John McBurney, of Cambridge, was elected secretary *pro tem.*

The President, R. W. Stevenson, of Columbus, delivered his inaugural on "*Supervision: Its Extent and its Limitations.*"

The discussion on the address was opened by Pres. Tappan, of Kenyon College, and continued by Supt. G. S. Ormsby, of Xenia, School Commissioner T. W. Harvey, and Supt. W. Watkins, of Middletown.

Supt. S. Findley, of Akron, presented a very able report on "*Uniform Classification and Course of Study.*"

Supt. R. McMillan, of Youngstown, opened the discussion on the report, and was followed by Commissioner Harvey, ex-Com- Henkle, Supt. Watkins, and Supt. M. C. Stevens, of Salem.

Adjourned to meet at 3 o'clock P.M.

Afternoon Session.

The Association was called to order at 3 P.M. by the President.

Miscellaneous business being called, W. H. Dressler, of Alliance, moved that a committee be appointed to nominate officers for the ensuing year. The President named W. H. Dressler, W. S. Wood, of Findlay, and W. Higley, of Dayton, as the committee.

G. O. Fay, of Columbus, presented a report on "*Methods of Deaf Mute Education.*"

The report was discussed by Supt. Hancock, of Cincinnati, W. D. Henkle, of Salem, W. Watkins, of Middletown, and M. C. Stevens, of Salem.

A. T. Wiles, of Zanesville, presented a report on "*A Uniform Method of Computing Percentages of Attendance.*"

W. D. Henkle, of Salem, opened the discussion on this paper, and was followed by G. S. Ormsby, John Hancock, E. T. Tappan, M. C. Stevens, and T. W. Harvey.

W. H. Dressler, chairman of the committee on Nomination of Officers, reported as follows:

President—Samuel Findley, of Akron.

Secretary—H. B. Furness, of Tiffin.

Executive Committee—John Hancock, of Cincinnati; R. McMillan, of Youngstown; A. B. Johnson, of Avondale.

On motion of E. T. Tappan, the report was adopted.

On motion of W. D. Henkle, of Salem, the Association adjourned to meet on the day preceding the next meeting of the Ohio State Teachers' Association, and at the same place.

JOHN McBURNEY,
Secretary pro tem.

SUPERVISION—ITS EXTENT AND ITS LIMITATIONS.

BY R. W. STEVENSON, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

Superintendents and Teachers of Ohio: I am grateful to you for the honor of presiding over your deliberations, but would have preferred that it should have fallen to the lot of some other member of this Association. Honors are sometimes cheap, but I have learned by experience that he who is called upon to direct the proceedings of an assembly of schoolmasters, if he does it well, earns dearly all the glory there is in it. I beg your indulgence and assistance in the discharge of my duty.

Released from the care and hard work of another year, escaped from the heat and dust of the city, and the monotony of town and village, assembled here where freshness, cleanliness, and beauty surround you, it need not be a matter of astonishment if the lightness of your hearts, and the freedom you enjoy would make you restless, even under the restraints of parliamentary law.

There are many reasons why you should warmly congratulate each other at this annual gathering. God, in his mercy, has spared the lives of the prominent members of the Association, and has given them enlarged and repeated opportunities for serving Him in the cause of humanity. Success has very generally crowned the labors of the year. Notwithstanding the perplexing delay in school legislation, there are now stronger reasons for the hope of securing something of value for the public schools of the state than there have been for several years. From the present political outlook, it does seem that we have had our last disappointment.

Another cause of congratulation is, that good feeling and harmony prevail in the educational councils of the state. There are honest differences of opinion in regard to great public measures pertaining to education, but good sense and concert of action have characterized your efforts. Whatever spirit actuates the educators and school men of other states, here in Ohio, professional courtesy and magnanimity have borne their legitimate fruits of fraternal love and respect. None of our teachers have applied for patents for their discoveries to exclude all others from using their ideas in regard to the organization of schools, classification, management, school architecture, and methods

f instruction. The inexperienced superintendent can freely obtain and fearssly use the best and ripest plans of the skillful and experienced. Our oldest id most successful superintendents and teachers are happiest when engaged i helping their younger brethren in the profession. This is one of the grand ojects of this Association. Another is, the elevation of the profession of aching in the estimation of the people, and to place it where it can accomlish the greatest good for the race.

He who stands at the head of a system of schools, however few the schools iay be in number, has rare opportunities for usefulness. The superintendent f a principal school in a county is virtually, although not nominally, the head f the educational affairs of the county. He can give form and direction to ublic opinion on matters pertaining to education. Delegations come to him or advice in regard to building school-houses, the most comfortable and esirable furniture, doubtful points of the school law, the best text-books i use, general management of schools, difficulties and differences arisng between directors and teachers, and often for information upon methods f instruction. In this indirect way his influence is felt in the most obscure subistrict in his county. His opportunities for usefulness and his work are not ounded by either city or town limits. If he is earnest and competent very oon a spirit of liberality and interest in popular education will begin to show tself all around him. If there is a dark spot in his county, he is sure by his nfluence to send there one of the most wide-awake teachers to be found upon he list of the county examiners.

But too much is sometimes expected and required of a superintendlent, both by the board of education and the people. Oftentimes without noney, without teachers, or the means to employ competent ones, without idequate accommodations for the children, without the sympathy, or coöperaion of either board or people, he is expected to give at least the schools under iis supervision the reputation of other schools, possessing all the means necesiary to make them efficient. Sometimes an active and efficient man fails in he estimation of the board and people, because he is so tied up by arbitrary rules and regulations, so hampered by committees, to whom are given duties which ought to be entrusted to him, that he can neither adopt nor carry out measures necessary to ordinary success. When his duties are defined, it ought to be done so definitely and clearly that he need never come in collision with committees of the board of education. If he wishes to avoid misunderstandings, he must know when, where, and in what he has discretionary power. But it sometimes happens that unlimited power is given to the superintendent by his board. He is informed that he is employed to carry on the schools, to instruct the board, which is only to be his agent (or the board is to be his servant instead of his being the servant of the board), in all things pertaining to school affairs. Upon him, and not upon the board, is to rest the whole responsibility. This is, especially, the case when the superintendent has won the confidence of the board and the community. His power and influence are unbounded. At his dictation school-sites are purchased and buildings are erected, teachers are chosen, and their salaries go up or down. Few men having gained this power are qualified to use it wisely, and within the proper

limits; hence, soon a reaction takes place, and the result is a complete prostration of all interests in popular education.

What, then, is the extent and limitation of the work of a superintendent of a system of schools? He by his experience and knowledge of school affairs, is expected to know more than any member of the board, what means should be provided for the establishment of schools, for building and tuition purposes, and other expenses connected with the successful conduct of a set of schools. He becomes, therefore, the counselor of his board in matters pertaining to the expenditures for school purposes. This requires of him "a profound knowledge of the *things* of life, as well as the *ideas* of thought." He must have the sight of the clear headed man of business; the good sense not to advise an expenditure of money beyond the ability of the people to pay, nor an amount which would make the management of the schools and the schools themselves odious to a majority of the people. He ought to know the financial ability of the people and their wishes. Good school buildings, comfortably furnished, roomy, well ventilated, and well kept, are necessary, both for the physical and esthetic culture of the youth, and ought to be strongly recommended by the superintendent, when he can clearly see that the means can be provided without oppressing the people, or cooling their ardor and their interest in popular education. Better have a plain but substantial building, with good teachers, well paid, than a magnificent structure, with no money, for at least one generation, to employ good teachers. If both can be had, all the better. Extravagance even in a good cause, is always wrong; economy always right. I know there are chronic grumblers in every community, men who do not keep pace with enlightened progress, who believe that school buildings, any more costly, convenient and comfortable than the mud walls and slab seats within, and on which they learned the multiplication table, although they themselves live in marble palaces, are uselessly extravagant, and originate in the visionary brain of impractical dreamers. The superintendent who can make his schools efficient in training the youth in all that pertains to genuine culture at the least expense, is the best manager. He ought to study economy, and advise the expenditure of money where it will produce the best results. If one thousand dollars can be saved in the mere outward adornments of a school building, and be laid out in conveniences, apparatus, and books for the children and teachers in the work of instruction, I am sure the money is applied to a better purpose. Or if it is paid out for the services of first-class teachers, it is more wisely appropriated. If a board of education should decide to build a costly school building, on account of which they would find it necessary to reduce the running expenses of the schools so much as to interfere with the efficiency of the schools, even for one year, the superintendent would act wisely if he advised the erection of a cheaper building, that the schools might be maintained in every department in the highest degree of efficiency. He would do a better work for a community to give them a first-class teacher at one thousand dollars per year, who should do her work in the basement of a dilapidated church, than to give them an elegant building and a fourth rate teacher at five hundred dollars per year. How shall the school funds be appropriated that the best results may be reached for buildings, tuition, or incidentals? If

retrenchment is necessary, where can it be made with the least injury to the schools? How can the available funds be used with the greatest advantage to the educational interests of the town or city? If a piece of apparatus is offered to the superintendent, which he knows is valuable and is needed in the schools, before making the expenditure or advising it to be made, he will carefully consider whether or not it is the very best investment which can be made for the good of the schools.

The experience and training of a teacher do not fit him for the work of this department of the superintendent's duties. For this reason few men, every way competent to manage the department of instruction, are well qualified to fill the position of wisely and economically directing the business affairs of a system of schools.

Important and vital as the work required of a superintendent is, in providing accommodations for the youth of the city or town in which he may be placed at the head of the schools, and in the economical application of school funds to be used for the promotion of the comfort and health of the children, the supervision of instruction is, after all, the great burden of his work. This is the end; all other work the means. From the fact that the number of persons who have had professional training is so small in proportion to the demand, many superintendents have felt that it was absolutely necessary to organize their teachers into a training school where they might have an opportunity to instruct them in the science and art of teaching. By this hot bed process of training teachers for their daily work in the school-room, some, possessing rare faculties for imitation, become, at the expense of the pupils, passable teachers. When one supply of information is exhausted, they go to the superintendent for another, never dreaming that it is possible for them to use their own brains in applying the methods they may have learned, and adapt them to the capacities of the children. Dull, mechanical teachers are made in this way. They teach by a pattern, and, with or without one, they become formal and lifeless instructors—givers of instruction without thought—chaff without wheat. The knowledge of the superintendent not only in his acquaintance with the subject, but also in his methods of presenting them, marks the highest point to be reached by the teachers. They learn to look to him, to depend upon him; the idea never occurring to them that, in their particular and special work, they ought to be original thinkers, and in time to become practically informed in all that pertains to the training of children. By this method of preparing teachers for their daily duties, is not most all the thinking done by the superintendent? Does he not sometimes so manifest his preference and emphasize his desire to have the teachers pursue his particular methods of managing a school and giving instruction, that even the teachers who do think and believe that they could accomplish more in some other way, are deterred from using their own well thought out plans and methods, because they feel they must follow in detail the plans and methods of their superior? Do we not sometimes, unintentionally it may be, discourage thought and investigation, and sometimes make those who might become self-reliant and skillful teachers mere reflectors, and not the brilliant, self-illuminating originals they would be to the little world of beings looking to them for light? Can a teacher who

does not think make thinkers? Can the moon by any amount of reflected light ever become a luminous body? Can a child ever learn to walk by watching the perambulations of the mother? Teachers who are taught to teach by methods not studied out and made their own, may become indifferent schoolkeepers, but surely they can never become enthusiastic and progressive educators. They may accumulate many valuable facts about the science and art of teaching, but this and the experience of a score of years can never increase their power to start the germ of thought into steady and healthy growth. The mechanic will not work with pleasure nor enthusiasm with the tools of another; the teacher will not with the exact pattern and methods of another. He who believes he has conceived a new method, or originated a new idea, burns with enthusiasm, and will impress others and move them to attention and respect. I believe we would have more good teachers and the children better trained, if more was done to enable the teachers to see clearly the extent of their work, its limitations, the results to be obtained, and in the methods they use, they were thrown upon their own resources. I know we would, if the teachers could be aroused to thoughtful and thorough study of the principles of education, developing for themselves methods adapted to child mind and child nature. If they fail to obtain the reasonable results which have been required, the fault is clearly their own; they were incompetent for the work they assumed to do. But suppose the superintendent informs them that he requires numbers to be taught in this way, reading thus, penmanship in this way, and language thus, and they attempt to follow his methods, they are robbed of their independence; their energies are spent in imitating their superior's prescribed methods and forms, and they finally fail because they have tried to be other than themselves. With a show of justice, at least, they may attribute their failure to the narrow restrictions of the superintendent. They may have attended the best training schools for teachers, studied long and thoroughly the history, science, and art of education, and under such restrictions make a miserable failure. Indeed, the greater their abilities, the deeper they have thought, the more original they are, the stronger they are in themselves mentally and morally, the greater will be the probability that they will fail when they have stepped out of their own individuality. If teachers felt that they must be prepared for the work of teaching *before* they assume to teach, and not to depend upon the superintendent and principals for instruction *after* they have begun, there would be fewer and worthier aspirants to important positions in the public schools of the country. Did any of you ever have a teacher who had failed, say to you, "Of course I didn't know how to teach arithmetic and grammar; you never taught me how; if you had, I need not have failed?" If teachers are engaged with the understanding that their knowledge of teaching is to be gained by trifling for a year with fifty or sixty boys and girls, and under the tuition of the superintendent, then the failure may be attributed to him with some justice. The poor pupils pay the bill for instruction at an awful cost. It is a fearfully expensive way of making teachers. It would be better for both teachers and pupils to require teachers to possess such qualifications for teaching as will enable them to rely upon themselves, and assume wholly the responsibility of failure or success.

Hints, suggestions, counsel, and methods ought to be freely given by the perintendent, but in such a manner as not to destroy the individuality nor e freedom of the teacher. This is, in my judgment, the extent and limita- on of his duty in relation to both the science and art of teaching, and the neral management of schools. His is not the business of instructing the achers either in the branches of study or in the way to teach them; this nowledge they ought to have acquired before making application for the posi- on of teachers. Why do not the young ladies who graduate from our high hools and seminaries feel, that, before they begin to teach, it is necessary to end at least one year in some good normal school or in private study? Be- use they are taken into our schools as teachers without question, and the perintendent at once assumes the duty of normal instructor. One whole ar is almost lost to the children in the training of the teacher at their ex- nse. Is not this true in many of our schools, and is it not wrong? For a perintendent to instruct his teachers, and to present what he conceives to be e best methods of instruction and discipline, is right and proper; but to re- uire his teachers to follow them all in detail, is quite a different thing. What ould be thought of a system of schools, where, in the same grade, each acher taught the same subject in precisely the same way, not varying in the ast particular? There may not be any schools in Ohio of this description; t I can conceive of such where teachers pursue one prescribed method. I an see, too, how a teacher, in her efforts to follow a method not her own, but rescribed by her superior, would have more anxiety about whether or not she lly comprehended it, and was using it just in accordonce with the model, an she would have about the good she was doing her pupils by eliciting ought and developing mind. An opinion of a teacher's ability is formed not om the amount of information she may have given her pupils, but from the bstantial mental growth she has stimulated.

To illustrate what I mean: Take two schools of the same grade, and com- osed of pupils of about the same home influences and natural endowments; ive the same written test to ascertain their knowledge of the subjects studied. ou find that the questions requiring little thought and an exercise of the emory are all answered by the pupils of one school; in the other, you find at the memory is sometimes at fault, but you observe the questions requiring ought are answered, perhaps not all accurately, but there is abundant evi- ence that the pupils think. You apply in the one an oral test, you find the upils answer *at* every question, right or wrong, without taking a moment to hink; in the other, all the pupils give the closest attention to the questions ou put to them—all are evidently thinking; here and there a little hand in- icates a desire to have a question repeated—not one *is guessing*, all *are think- ng;* eyes soon begin to sparkle; hand after hand is raised; your question is *houghtfully* answered. You feel that every pupil is stronger now than a mo- ent ago. You would agree, at once, in regard to which of the two teachers ad the greater ability as an educator. The place of the one could be filled y the high-school girl of seventeen; the other you would search long for mong teachers of large experience.

The superintendent must be a man of remarkable attainments, or his teach-

ers must have exceedingly meager acquirements, if there are none who do not know more about some things than himself. Suppose he has in his High School a teacher who has given years of hard and successful study to particular branches, and the *how* to teach them,—a bold, original thinker, who, by his own investigations and the scholarship of his pupils, has given the best evidence that he has taught his pupils to think;—would the independence of such a teacher allow him to remain one day longer in the school, if compelled to work by a prescribed method dictated by another? If he would not interfere with him, why interfere with a primary teacher who has like skill and attainments in her particular department? In my judgment, he is the wisest and most successful manager of a system of schools, who, depending not wholly upon his own knowledge and ability, has the power to concentrate the intelligence and energies of his teachers, and to bring them to bear upon the work to be accomplished. One teacher has ability running in one direction, another in another; let them be distributed so as to find the particular work for which they have special qualifications and natural gifts;—the result will be, that, instead of one brain doing all the thinking for the schools, as many brains as there are teachers are ever active in lines of thought they love to follow. Enthusiastic, earnest, thoughtful teachers will infuse their pupils with the same spirit. To bring out the talent and intelligence of a corps of teachers, and so direct and use it with the loss of no power, is indeed a rare faculty. A corps of teachers may have sufficient knowledge and ability to accomplish much, to do the work in every grade of a system of schools well, which, if misdirected and misemployed by the superintendent, will utterly fail.

The organization and the classification of a system of schools according to a well-arranged course of study, is work belonging to the superintendent, and lies at the very threshold of success. In the course of instruction both the time and the work must be carefully considered. To require teachers and pupils to perform in one year what experience has taught requires two, would defeat the whole plan. Nature, in mental as well as physical development, must have time.

The work of a superintendent is also political in its character. He ought to be a politician. I do not mean in any partisan sense, nor in the common acceptation of that term; but in the sense of one versed in the science of government, and earnestly seeking the welfare of the state. The public school is a political institution. It is established and fostered by the state. Through it the state seeks her best and truest interest and strongest guaranty for liberty and happiness, to wit: the intelligence and morality of the people. In this state a system of education is established by law; and schoolmasters and boards of education are the appointed officers to carry into execution the provisions of the law. Teachers, therefore, and all school officers stand within the arena of politics. It is a matter worthy of note, and creditable to political parties of every name, that while they have stood face to face for and against state and national measures, the question of popular education has never been one of any single party. Good and great men of all parties have been the advocates of our system of public schools. They believe the political questions involving the educational interests of the people of this country, tran-

end all others in importance, because the national life depends upon what ey are and how they are determined. The qualifications which the future en and women of this country will possess for good citizenship, depend upon ir systems of public instruction and the morality and patriotism of teachers. he schoolmaster saved Prussia; because he was not, the French empire fell. ho are the men best qualified to determine what provisions ought to be ade for the education of the American youth? Surely they are not narrow-inded partisan politicians who are actuated by mere selfish motives. They e the men who, comprehending the truth, "The life of the government is e intelligence of the people," know what legislation is needed. Those per-nally connected with the public schools know best the defects in school ws, and are best qualified to prescribe the remedies. Superintendents and ichers, for some reason, seem unwilling to take any part in politics, even ien important educational questions are pending. This is wrong. Needed hool legislation has been sorely delayed on account of this unwillingness. ie members of this Association, if they would, could wield a political in-ence strong enough to put in the General Assembly of the state men con-rsant with school affairs—fair minded, liberally educated men, whose aim uld be the passage of such measures as the highest efficiency of the school stem of the state demands. The people of a city or town know well enough at the first step to be taken to make the public schools good, is to place com-tent men on the board of education. The first step to make the school sys-m of the state efficient, is to send competent school men to the General ssembly of the state. If we are agreed here as to what measures are neces-ry for perfecting the school system of Ohio, we ought to bring them before e people, and oppose, by every honorable means, the political aspirant who ll not pledge himself to their support.

We send men who are known enemies of all progress in school affairs, ose election we might have defeated, from our own homes to the legislature, id then expect the Commissioner of Common Schools to secure the passage of eral and enlightened school laws. In my judgment, the State School Com-issioner has the most refractory and illiberal board of education to deal with Ohio. We have, at least, the political power and influence of other citizens, id we ought to use it, especially, for the good of the cause to which we have evoted our lives.

The range of the duties of a superintendent is widely extended, yet limited. is own good sense is the only boundary of his actions. He is a teacher and the same time a thorough man of business,—a plain, straight-forward man, ndid, conciliatory, yet a keeper of his own counsels, and inflexible in his irposes. A man with a big heart, yet oftentimes his actions will appear to e community cruel—heartless. A man who could give the fullest explanation his conduct, and the most valid reasons for his acts, but on account of the neral good he is silent. The teacher's true friend in her absence; in her esence, often her apparent enemy. As the manager of finance, shrewd, onomical and liberal; as the superintendent of instruction, scholarly, dicious, systematic, and comprehensive; and as a politician, discreet, active, arless, and patriotic.

DISCUSSION OF THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

PRES. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College, Gambier, O.: I commend the importance of the subject of the president's address, and the manner of treating it. He suggested that a superintendent should be, either by law of the state or by regulation of the board, at least an advisory member of every board of education. Even if not permitted to vote in the board, it would add very much to the excellence of their deliberations, if he were authorized to make motions and explanations, and to discuss generally, the subjects that would come before them. This plan has been approved by experience. In nearly all the leading colleges of the United States, the president is a member of the board of trustees.

The president of the association discussed the relative importance of spending money for buildings erected with great architectural taste and at great expense, and spending money to obtain teachers of high rank, and decided in favor of securing the best teachers. We all agree with the president, that nothing is so important to a school as a good teacher. It is the first, and the second, and the third essential. But we should not neglect that education which depends upon works of art, if we are able to attain it. There seems to be a disposition upon the part of teachers to forget that the beings entrusted to our care are not simply intellectual, that they have also sentiments and a will, the education of which is more important than any education of the merely knowing faculty.

The inaugural of the president referred also to the work of the superintendent, as a politician, and the importance of teaching children how to know and understand the principles of our form of government. Now, it is equally important that they be taught the sentiment which underlies our politics, respect for the nobility of man, and sympathy for all human beings as members of a common brotherhood.

MR. HARVEY: I rise to say that I did not find the general assembly, last winter, a refractory board of education. That body contained many good, sensible, enlightened gentlemen, who were willing to give us just what we wanted, provided that they could be convinced that what we wanted was best.

MR. STEVENSON: Did you find enough of them?

MR. HARVEY: I believe there were enough of such men to pass the codified school bill, if there had been sufficient time to consider its provisions. The bill passed the house by a vote of 65 to 20, but its consideration was postponed by the senate, and it was made the special order for an early day next winter. I am certain that a decided majority of the senators would have voted for the bill, had there been time to give it the consideration its importance demanded. If you want that bill to become a law, go home and work for it with such members as you can influence. The house, it is true, struck out the township system—the peculiar feature of the bill—but at the same time gave the people of each township liberty to organize under the town or village system, if they so desired. The bill, as it passed the house, so far as cities and towns are concerned, is absolutely all that we want, and it provides a means for all the townships becoming graded school districts, under the management and control of township boards of education, as rapidly as the people desire. Our work now is to create a public sentiment that shall lead to the abolition of our present sub-district system through the people's own act. We have not yet been able to secure any legislation in favor of normal schools; but there are good reasons for that. In the state that has the best normal schools, only about three teachers in each one hundred are normal school graduates. The state can not afford to provide thorough professional instruction for all her teachers. We must solve the problem of normal instruction for ourselves, and I am sure the state will aid us in our work. Private enterprise must do something for normal schools. Professional

ols will soon be established in most of our larger cities. We must ask the state omote normal instruction, not by furnishing agencies for the direct training of ar teachers, but for a sufficient number to constitute an enthusiastic professional that shall train the rest. The state is now ready for some such work as this.

e can easily resolve here to spend millions of dollars for our schools, and to ote the interests of education; but finance committees have a different work to They see that all interests of state concern must be cared for, and they dare ncrease the burden of taxation. By-and-by, our benevolent institutions will ire a less expenditure of money than now, for the buildings now being erected, eat cost, will soon be finished; our state debt will be wiped out, or nearly so, perhaps, the expenses of our state government decreased:—then we may hope our legislators will pay some attention to our fancy projects, as some persons se to call them.

VOICE: It is a good name for some of them.

t. HARVEY: It is a popular name for some folks at Columbus. But in all that se, if we manage properly, legislators will sustain us, and the people will up- the hands of the legislators.

O. S. ORMSBY, of Xenia, Ohio: I desire to recall attention to two points in the dent's address. The one is that of economy. Frequently there seems to be a ing of interests between the friends of the school—the teacher and the people. president was pleased to say that the teacher ought to be a politician. Now, a ician is a man that will not be likely to be elected, if he had a plank in his orm which advocated high taxes. The people are willing to support schools. ungrudgingly submit to be taxed to the fullest extent necessary to secure the est and best education that the state demands; but they are not willing to be ened with unnecessary taxation. The interest of the teacher and the interest ie people should be one, and it should be the object of the teacher to study an omy in school management which shall render the school prosperous.

ie second point is that which refers to the teacher's preparation for his work. are all familiar with this fact, that no matter what may be the subject which a undertakes to present to an audience, whether it be the science of geology, the ice of bugs, or any other science, if he understands that subject thoroughly, if enthusiastic in his manner, he will arouse an exciting interest in it. Now, we that some teachers are successful in teaching certain subjects. Unconscious that ecret of their success lies in themselves, they attribute the merit which is their to the text-book which they use. They find their pupils eager for the time this particular subject is to be presented, because their own knowledge of it and enthusiasm in teaching it awaken corresponding feelings in the pupils. On ther hand, that teacher who employs the text-book to indicate the matter of uction, as well as to supply test questions for the recitation, invariably finds the ject unentertaining, and the pupils dull and unable to learn. The fault is not in pupils, not in the text-book, not in the subject, but in the lack of preparation ie part of the teacher for the work in hand. Such teachers are always failures, can not well be otherwise. We must have teachers that thoroughly understand ubjects which they attempt to teach, and then there will be success in school

. WATKINS, of Middletown, Ohio: The president's address produced the effect of ouragement on my mind. I thought of two very celebrated ancient poets, of m it was said that one painted men as they should be; the other as they are. president has drawn an ideal picture of a superintendent, so high and so far e the reality, in every particular case, that I am considerably discouraged by it.

However, I am determined to set it up for an ideal, toward which I shall struggle in the future.

The president has spoken of economy in school matters. The proneness of mankind to spend money in architectual adornments, and the very frequent faults of school boards, in exhausting all the educational resources of a district in expensive school-houses, are well known. When a new school-house is to be built, the superintendent, by fanning the flame, can easily induce greater outlay than the board would otherwise sanction. The superintendent should endeavor to organise the public sentiment of the village or city wherever he lives, in such a manner that it may be felt in the school-room, and be supported by the teachers in daily employment with him.

UNIFORM CLASSIFICATION AND COURSE OF STUDY.

BY SAMUEL FINDLEY, AKRON, OHIO.

Several attempts have been made to secure some degree of uniformity in the classification and instruction of the schools of our state, but without any very definite results. There is, probably, no more difficult problem for the thoughtful educators of the present, than the arrangement of a course of instruction which shall supply to the young miud, at its various stages of growth, just the right stimulation and nutriment. But, notwithstanding its difficulty, it is a problem whose solution must be attempted. As its conditions become better understood, there will be a nearer approximation to its correct solution. Nor does it seem wise for each one of us to act upon the result of his own investigations. There should be harmony of effort and concert of action. Whatever is right in education, whatever has its foundation in the nature and capabilities of the human mind, should be employed by us all.

It may be impracticable to map out on paper a course of instruction so complete, both as to matter and order, and so perfect in detail, as to be an infallible guide to the teacher for every day in the school term, and for every term in the year; but I think experience has fully demonstrated the practicability of indicating, in a general way, the order of subjects, allotting, approximately, its appropriate amount of time to each, and suggesting somewhat the method to be pursued, so as to form a kind of outline chart or guide-book to the teacher. Something of this kind is the more necessary, inasmuch as a very large majority of teachers have no theory of education, but are mere imitators. In the discussion of this subject two years ago, one speaker said, in substance, that the primary agent in this matter is the teacher—that we can get no great results until we can have teachers trained in the principles as well as the methods of instruction, so that, instead of blindly following a prescribed course, they may, in the spirit of true artists, look to the child, and seeing its wants, may know how to meet them. It is true that the highest results can not be attained without teachers so trained, but if we are to wait until all our schools are supplied with teachers thus fitted, I very much fear the present generation will not be benefited by the desired reform. Not ten per cent. of the teachers engaged in the public schools, even in the cities and

wns of our state, make any earnest effort to comprehend the principles which derlie the methods of instruction they use. Nor is there any immediate ɔspect of great improvement in this direction. It is altogether probable ıt a great majority of teachers will continue, for some time to come, to teach s or that, and by this or that method, because it is required. In the rural tricts, where there has been no supervision, they are still pursuing the same ıtine, with few exceptions, which was pursued a quarter of a century ago. ıatever of improvement has been made in the matter and methods of instruc- n in our city schools within the last few years, is, in a great measure, due to :areful mapping out of the work. It gives direction to the teachers' efforts, d places before teachers and pupils a standard which experience has shown be within the reach of average ability. A judicious course of study may be the teacher what the plans and specifications of the architect are to the ilder. If, in the erection of any important structure, each one of a corps workmen is left to carry on his part of the work according to his own ideal, want of adaptation and a want of harmony of parts would be the almost in- itable result. Teachers need working plans. It is for want of this that ıch effort has been wasted in the past. Teachers, and superintendents too, ve lacked in clearly defined ideas of the end to be accomplished, and the eans adapted to that end. Let a judicious course of instruction be adopted r the whole state—one in which it shall not be the chief aim to discard all at is old and tried, and to incorporate all that is new, nor yet to reject any ing merely because it may be new to some. In matter and order, and in the ethods suggested, let it be the embodiment of all that the experience of the :st educators in our own and other countries has proven to be most valuable, which might be added some things suggestive for sake of experiment; and t it be put into the hands of every teacher and school director in the state, ıd its influence on the schools of the state must, of necessity, be very great. he very attempt to understand its leading features, so as to put them into ɔeration, would tend to give enlarged ideas, and would, in many cases, lead) an investigation of the underlying principles.

But the question of greatest difficulty is, What educational principles are ue, and what should be included in such a course? It is scarcely possible to pproach this subject, without being filled with an overwhelming sense of its ıagnitude. Its right understanding involves a knowledge of so much that is ifficult, if not impossible for us to know, that it is not strange that educational ;stems are of slow growth. If education has for its object the highest devel- pment of the human powers, it is obvious that, before we can discover the ue method of conducting the process, we must know the nature of that which to be developed. We must understand the nature of the human faculties, ıeir capabilities, and the appliances best adapted to promote their growth.

We doubtless all agree that every human soul has within itself the vital prin- iples or forces of preservation and growth, and that these forces are stimu- ıted to activity and supplied with appropriate nutriment by agencies which perate upon them from without. We are, doubtless, further agreed that the irections and modes in which these vital forces operate are fixed, and no ower of ours can change the law which prescribes the boundaries within

which mind must grow, or alter the character of the forces by which its growth is promoted. All we can properly do is to wait upon nature, and supply to the inherent forces of the mind their appropriate excitations. We may, indeed, hinder the process of development by improper appliances; we may, and no doubt oftentimes do, reverse nature's order, but the result must be an enfeebled and distorted product, very different from the normal type.

The province of the educator, then, is to ascertain, as far as possible, what are the laws of mental growth, and, at the appropriate time, in proper order and in sufficient measure, to bring young minds in contact with those agencies which are best adapted to elicit and develop the spontaneous energies of the human faculties. It is not to be assumed that the growth of mind proceeds by such clearly defined stages, that a certain set of appliances must be used up to a given point, and that, at that point, these must be set aside and a different set employed. The truth would be more nearly represented by the statement that, with increased age up to maturity, the mind, like the body, requires larger portions of the same aliment. Every power of the mind is awake and active at an early age. It would be hard to say at what age the child commences the exercise of imagination and reason as well as perception. It must be admitted, however, that, at some periods of life, some of the mind's activities predominate, absorbing the larger share of mental energy, while others are subordinate and collateral; and still I think this is not more true of the mind at different periods of development than at different stages of any investigation which the mind undertakes.

There seem to be three processes or three directions of mental activity. The mind is either engaged in acquiring knowledge; in analyzing, comparing, classifying or combining what has been acquired; or in making application of its acquisitions to practical purposes; and though these processes may be, and often are, going on simultaneously, yet I think there are periods in the growth of mind, when one predominates over the other to such an extent that we may, with propriety, speak of the acquisitive period, the elaborative period, &c., bearing distinctly in mind that these terms are only intended to indicate the predominating tendency of the mind at a given period.

If these principles are correct, they may be made serviceable in determining what is the best course of study for a system of schools. The acquisitive period clearly belongs to the first years of life. It is then that the mind is chiefly occupied with the various objects of attention around it. At the commencement of this period the mind of the child is entirely beyond the reach of formal tuition. We are not even able to mark the period of its opening. We only know that the acquisitive process commences very early and proceeds very rapidly, as the result of natural excitations operating from without, and calling forth the responsive activities of powers within. Thus nature indicates to us the true method of mental development. Children should be brought into immediate contact with nature and reality, before attempting to present the symbols of either as subjects of study, and this not only indicates the prevailing type of instruction demanded in early childhood; it also points out the true order in which any new subject should ordinarily be presented at any period of school life.

Just when this susceptibility of the mind to impressions from without begins o yield its predominance to a proneness to elaborate its previous acquisitions, vould be hard to determine. Much earlier, doubtless, in some cases than in oth- ers. It is probable, however, that in most cases the period of its greatest activity s past before the child comes under the formal tuition of the teacher. And this suggests the question whether "object lessons" properly so called, are of as great value, as a part of a course of school instruction, as their advocates claim. Object lessons are valuable in their proper place, and their introduction into our schools has done much to improve our methods of instruction; but there is danger that, by their use, an excess of stimulus be applied to the perceptive faculties, at a time when assistance and guidance in the use of the reflective powers are more needed. In the intellectual, as well as in the moral world, the path of truth is a straight and narrow path. Extremes on either hand are to be equally avoided. The transition from the home to the school should not be too abrupt. Object lessons and familiar conversations on common things might properly occupy considerable time on the child's first introduction to school, but, like his clothing, he will soon either wear them out or outgrow them. Of course, all good teaching, in whatever grade of schools, partakes more or less of an objective character. Illustration and simile should be largely used; and, where the nature of the subject will admit, the eye and the hand should be appealed to by the use of tangible objects. In regard to this there is probably no difference of opinion.

The period of time over which a common school course of instruction should extend seems to be pretty well settled. Most will agree in putting it at about eight years. Experience and observation seem to indicate that this is about the average time necessary for the completion of such a course.

Language lessons should occupy a prominent place throughout the entire course. The ability to utter the elementary sounds of the language, both separately and in combination, should be early acquired. The spelling of words should be learned only as fast as they come into use by the pupil. Every reading lesson should be made a language study, and a prominent object of every recitation should be to cultivate the power of expression. The pupil's vocabulary should be continually extended, and he should read the language fluently, and speak and write it with at least tolerable facility and accuracy. Grammar, if introduced into the course at all, should be placed near its close.

Writing and drawing should go hand in hand throughout the whole course.

Vocal music should not come in for sake of ornament merely, but it should be a daily exercise throughout the course, and every pupil should learn to read and sing plain music at sight.

Geography and arithmetic might, without detriment, occupy less time than they have usually occupied, leaving room for the introduction of the elements of natural science, though perhaps our experience has not yet well determined what place these should hold in a common school course of instruction.

Every American youth should know something of the history of his own country, though more time is devoted to this subject in some of our schools than its importance demands.

Of course there are many things pertaining to general culture—such, for example, as the cultivation of the moral and religious sensibilities, which depend so directly on the living teacher, and which, to be effective, must permeate all the instruction and all the discipline of the school, that they can scarcely take shape in a course of study like that proposed.

DISCUSSION OF MR. FINDLEY'S PAPER.

PRES. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College: I rejoice in Mr Findley's statement of the principles which underlie this matter of a course of study. He has recognized that children are not merely to be cultivated in their intellects, but in the power of making use of the knowledge they have; and in their tastes as in music; and, above all, in their wills. His paper is excellent, the closing sentence particularly, in which he gives the correct method of teaching morals and religion.

[Remarks were also made by Messrs. Henkle, McMillan, and Watkins.]

THE METHODS OF DEAF-MUTE EDUCATION.

BY G. O. FAY, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

The methods employed in teaching mutes are especial only as they relate to the teaching and use of language. Mental discipline and the acquisition of knowledge, so largely the objects of general education, are secured by mutes by methods the same as those pursued in ordinary schools. The prominent use of object lessons, so called, is frequently remarked by visitors. This apparent characteristic results from the use of pantomime which, as far as it goes, represents ideas far more vividly than any mere word description. Mental discipline is gained indirectly by the exercise of the faculties upon the successive branches of study which constitute the course, and which extend from the primer to the most advanced studies of the high school, the study of language having a prominent place throughout.

Disciplined mental power can be readily developed by the training of a series of years. Elementary knowledge upon the various subjects embraced in the course of study can also be readily imparted, if the instructor is a skillful user of pantomime. But, this done, if no more has been done, the graduate, diploma in hand, is worth less to himself and to the community than many a six-year old urchin first crossing the threshold of the primary school. The ability to read and write, and perhaps to speak the English language, while by no means a measure of the discipline and learning of the mute is yet the real measure of his value in human affairs.

The different opinion held by the educators of deaf mutes, and all the discussions, more or less heated, of the last fifty years have centered around the question, how best to teach language in its spoken or written forms. These are the living questions to-day. They are embraced in the following category:

1st. Why not use and require of the pupil oral speech?

2d. Why not use and require spelled or written speech?

3d. Why not use and require syllabic or word-signs made in the order of the English sentence?

4th. Why use pantomime?

The discussion of these questions will develop the principles and methods which underlie the subject of deaf-mute education, and which in their logical results determine the details of the daily school-room routine.

1st. Why not use and require of the pupil oral speech?

In a hearing school, the very first morning, there gathers around the teacher a group of children who, every one of them, can hardly restrain the disposition to talk and whisper long enough for him, in a few well chosen words, to draw his first lines of order. Why not pursue the same way, only more patiently, with a class of keen-eyed mutes? The fact is, the teacher of the hearing school, his first morning, can use language with a certainty of being understood, and will listen to statements expressed with a correctness which the best talkers and lip-readers among mutes have never equalled in any school upon their graduation day. By experiment the teacher of the mute class will ascertain that one or two of the twenty can hear words shouted near to one or both ears. He may also discover one or two more, who did not lose their hearing until after they had learned to talk, and from these, by pronouncing familiar words composed largely of labial sounds, slowly and with frequent repetitions, he may occasionally secure a response, assuring him that he is understood. The teacher is glad to find two or three even who escape the designation of "mute." But how with the sixteen or seventeen remaining who can neither understand the teacher nor talk to him, but who yet constitute the body of the class and give it its character. They are children who, for ten years, the most plastic years of life, have been surrounded by talkers whose social interest in them has been chiefly expended in efforts to induce them to talk, or at least to understand what is said to them. Baffled and disappointed in this, the parents have brought their child, always the pet of the household, to the institution to be educated. Withdrawn from his home life, the social influence of which has failed to draw him from his profound isolation, he is now added to a community of hundreds similarly afflicted with deafness. Fond parents, who have perhaps expended hundreds of dollars in efforts to restore the hearing of their child, efforts only to be abandoned as abortive, still cling to the possibility that their particular child may be able to acquire the articulation and lip-reading, and so be restored to general society. Poor mute child! What hast thou not suffered at the surgeon's hand, guided by the sympathy, it may be the pride, of the parental heart! What art thou yet to suffer in laborious efforts to get what, in a large majority of cases, can never be obtained! Theorizers and, it may be, teachers have told the parent that all is easy, and that the good day is coming, is even now dawning, when the name "mute" will cease to be applied to any intelligent youth, except as a stigma. The answer to these fond parental expectations, and these positive professional claims, is found in the experience of the best European schools, where, after two generations of experiment, it is admitted that but a small fraction of the pupils taught are ever able to hold easy oral conversation with their fellow men. The intelligent gentleman or lady, as the case may be, whom

somebody has met somewhere, who understands all that was said in private and in public, and who conversed readily upon all subjects without exciting the suspicion of his deafness, is a mythical personage, finding a place naturally in the poetical department of the literature of deaf-mute education. With the greater number of deaf mutes, as they exist in our communities, efforts to carry forward their education by oral speech, will fail to give speech to any useful extent, and, which is a very serious evil, will also consume the time needed to acquire the elements of a good English education by an easier way. It is probable that with a large majority of deaf mutes the improved method, as it is called, if applied and persisted in, will prove to be merely a mangling process. Pains should be taken to restore to the use of oral speech those who are partially deaf, and those who retain something of the speech which they had acquired before they became deaf. A few other mutes, congenitally so, will also be discovered possessing sufficient ambition, adaptation and skill, to undertake the difficult art. Excepting the partially deaf, who properly are excluded from the category of deaf mutes, these latter should pursue the art, at institutions at least, as a separate branch of study. The results of this study, growing from year to year, should be utilized by the conscientious teacher in the exercises of the school-room, where all who can talk or read lips with any facility or satisfaction, should be encouraged and required to do so to the extent of their proficiency. How large a fraction of the school these will constitute, the experience and increasing skill of the future must determine. At present, in our state institutions, it comprises a little above one-tenth of the whole number.

2d. Why not use and require written or spelled speech?

Granting that oral speech, except with a small fraction, is impracticable, and that for the mass of deaf mutes some other method of approach must be pursued, may not the teacher maintain the second line proposed, namely, that of using himself, and of requiring the pupil to use written speech or language spelled with the manual alphabet?

Excepting the semi-mutes described above, at the outset of the course, at least, this is impossible. The teacher has yet to give the pupil the first forms of words, and, to do it most effectively, numberless illustrations and associated ideas should be introduced. Pictures can be used, and they are relied upon as far as available, but their scope and adaptation are very limited. The necessities of the situation, in all schools, articulating schools included, force the teacher to avail himself for a time of the mute's own language, pantomime, a language characterized in certain quarters as a most dangerous thing. The emergency, however, calls for desperate expedient, and the language is used and the chasm bridged over. With advancing education, however, acquaintance with written speech advances quite rapidly, and comes to be used in place of the dangerous dialect of pantomime, licensed temporarily under protest. The permanence and clearness of a written statement give it as a method of communication a high value, and one recognized largely in the best hearing schools. But in school exercises, continued throughout a whole day, and day after day, a serious drawback arises from the great amount of time consumed in the merely mechanical labor of writing. Writing at the usual

rate, as compared with ordinary oral speech, has been found to require a time about nine times as long. To obviate this evil, the manual alphabet has been invented, and is now universally employed in the education of mutes. Finger spelling, confusing though it appears to a novice, really cuts down the mechanical element of time to one third, or to only three times the time occupied by oral communication. Still, even with the assistance of the manual alphabet, written or spelled speech is to a mute exceedingly tedious. His mind chafes to escape from its mechanical fetters. No mute, however well educated, employs the manual alphabet to any considerable extent, much less written speech, in his familiar intercourse with his mute friends. The same is true also of those who spoke fluently up to a certain age, when, becoming deaf, they came to the institution for education. This irrepressible liking for another language does not, however, exclude the ready use of written speech, and, as a method, written speech, supplemented by spelled speech, should be employed in all cases where it is readily understood, and for a time as prolonged as may be, without wearying the pupil, or destroying his interest in the immediate object of recitation or attention. Its use will steadily increase until at length, in the more advanced classes, it will be used almost entirely.

3d. Why not use and require syllabic or word signs, made in the order of the English sentence?

The part of this question referring to syllabic signs has been already answered, for syllables have no value until the words which they compose are understood. Words learned, a syllabic alphabet, if clear, would be as much superior to the manual alphabet as it should prove to be more rapid. Of the various syllabic alphabets as yet offered to the mute, all have been rejected for their obscurity and ambiguity.

Word signs are ordinarily free from both ambiguity and obscurity, and win a ready acceptance. They are rapid, more rapid even than oral utterance. Now, why can not a teacher, driven to the temporary use of pantomime before his pupils have gained a knowledge of written language, use it in a modified form, so constructing, dividing, and arranging a series of word signs as really to use the order of the English sentence, each word being represented by its own characteristic sign? Would not such a method tend to restrict the exuberant disorderly mental operations of the pupil to the order of the English sentence, and so, while escaping the detrimental influence of pantomime, prepare him, unconsciously, for the acquisition of a correct order whenever, in his advancement, his word signs have become translated into their spelled, written, or, it may be, oral equivalents?

We do not claim for the English language an order the most natural, and yet we experience no particular difficulty in carrying forward our mental commerce along its channels. We are familiar with the fundamental connection existing between our mental order of thought and our written style. When we attempt to compose in a foreign tongue the influence of our vernacular speech in corrupting the necessary order of the sentence we know. And how often do we observe the same influence at work corrupting the English style of a foreigner. This corrupting influence of a vernacular language constitutes the central objection to the use of pantomime. From this element comes

whatever of injurious influence it exerts upon the mute. Now, what difficulty is there in constructing a sign language to order, one from which the corrupting element of a faulty order has been eliminated?

Such has been the reasoning of the educators of deaf mutes for fifty years The desirability of so important a result has been universally admitted, and to secure it, the sign making of institutions has been reduced rigorously to the order of the English sentence, and that for a generation. And in other institutions, with the same ultimate purpose, the same course has been pursued more or less, especially with the younger classes. And yet in every class of every institution in the land, the moment the pupil passes the threshold which separates the proprieties of the school room from the freedom of ordinary social intercourse, every muscle, and feature, and limb of the pupil combine to enact a panorama of pantomime, n which many of the teacher's signs are used indeed, but no more resembling them than the finished garment resembles the fragments upon a tailor's table. All attempts to control the order of the mute's pantomime have utterly failed. The language has a genius and laws of its own which he who uses it, must respect. Shall a teacher persist in using a language of his own, theoretically valuable, when every one of his pupils continually uses, and prefers to use another? With their remarkable ingenuity in comprehending signs, it is probable that they will catch the teacher's meaning with his English order, but not one of them will ever adopt it for himself, nor will the teacher himself use it outside of the school room. Why not, then, when necessary, use the pupil's own language, inverted as it is, but no jargon, and so secure greater vividness of impression, and at the same time by patient toil, educate the pupil away from the faulty order induced by his vernacular?

4th. Why use pantomime?

Or rather, why not use pantomime? What else can the teacher use in the earlier stages of the course? And at every stage explanations will occasionally be needed, where nothing can be substituted for it. It is the natural language of every deaf person, whether born so or made so subsequently. Amid influences favoring the development and use of pantomime and uncounteracted, it will surely come, and the speech previously possessed will gradually disappear. This powerful proclivity of the deaf to pantomime is not always allowed its due weight. Because a mute boy, upon entering school, has but a few uncouth motions, it is sometimes said that he learns his signs at school, which is largely true, and the wonder is expressed, why so much pains has been taken to teach what has so little value compared with the English language itself. And sometimes it is even suggested that the instructor has been delinquent in allowing the mental ground of the pupil to be so preoccupied. But the fact is, the teacher can not exclude signs from use if he would. The language is the outgrowth of the mute's social instincts, and is as natural to him as oral speech is to the hearing. He came to the institution with few signs, because his circumstances had been unfavorable for their development.

How many articulate sounds, if indeed a single sentence, would a hearing child utter, if from infancy it had been confined to the society of mutes? Give the hearing infant a speaking parent, and it acquires oral language, and

we say it is its natural language. So give a mute child a mute parent, and it will come to school at ten years of age with a sign language of considerable value. The rude sounds of the isolated hearing child and the uncouth motions of the isolated mute are both indications of a natural desire and adaptation for a better language. Two hearing children isolated would rapidly construct an oral language; and so two mutes associated will soon construct a stock of signs mutually understood. It matters not whether they are significant or conventional; they are signs, and are accepted by the users as representative of ideas. It needs no instruction to give a circle of mutes a sign language. A teacher can undoubtedly help them to one much more expressive and exact than the one which they unaided will adopt. He is familiar with the efforts of many years and, it may be, of generations. He has given to the language the study and the criticism of a cultivated taste. He can and, therefore, should do all in his power to improve their language, but he can not prevent them from having one. The most stringent rules of articulating schools have never been able to repress it. Crushed to earth, it will spring up again upon the first shower of feeling. Semi mutes even, who already possess a correct use of language and have a cultivated literary taste, take up the sign language, in spite of all the exhortations of their teachers, with great avidity, and prefer to use it ever after, when with hearing people even if the latter will allow them to do so.

The mind of a deaf person craves a language addressed to a living sense. Any other language is to him an artificial one in the most real sense of the term. This natural tendency of the mute to the use of pantomime, and his actual use of it upon every conceivable subject, affords to the instructor an exact and rapid method of communicating with his pupils, if he chooses to use it. However educated the pupil may come to be in subsequent years, the time will never arrive in his history when he will not prefer it in conversation, if his companion is equally skillful in its use. Supplemented by manual spelling for technical expressions, it is fully equal to all the necessities of the school-room, the lecture-room, and the pulpit. By using it, the teacher, the first morning of school, may communicate ideas and offer illustrations, which could not be introduced by the forms of oral or written language for years thereafter. However slow the pupil may be to remember his written or printed lesson, he forgets no pantomime. The teacher, however, knows that, potent and sufficient as pantomime really is as an educating influence and as a vehicle of ideas, yet the pupil must eventually come to the correct and free use of the ordinary forms of expression, if he is to be, in any substantial sense, restored to society, and to have for himself the full benefit of books and newspapers. The judicious teacher will, therefore, use pantomime only when the slender stock of words understood by the pupil requires it. Used freely at first, it will gradually give way to better forms of thought, the teacher meanwhile keeping his eye steadily upon that highest and best achievement of mute education—the ability to use the English language correctly.

Or, comprehensively, the true methods of deaf-mute education are--to use and require oral speech, if possible; or, if that can not be, to use and require written speech, as far as it can be done, intelligibly and without weariness

leaving for all those processes of education, where neither is available, the use of the mute's own pantomime, remembering ever that it is but a scaffolding, employed by the safe builder until the main structure—language—is completed, and then laid aside. The mute will, indeed, always return to it with the affection felt by every person for his own vernacular tongue; but living, as he does, surrounded by speaking persons, he will, however reluctantly, conform to their chosen medium of ideas, looking forward with earnest hope to that great unfolding, where the many tongues of earth, discordant now, will blend in one universal language.

DISCUSSION OF MR. FAY'S PAPER.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati: I am interested in this special branch of instruction on account of its own great method of bringing educational advantages, very long ago, to those that were left to grow up without any formative sort of instruction, except what the nature of surrounding circumstances might give them. I am greatly interested in it because I think through that instruction, and the methods adopted by those who have had most experience, we may derive lessons that will profit us in instructing those we may have under our care. I think that every one will agree, that all the primary facts that are obtained by the mind, and which are the foundations of its advancement in after life, are derived through the senses. The deaf mute is cut off from one channel of communication with the outer world; that is, cut off from expressing relations between the outward object and its internal nature, and this must take place altogether through one sense. Therefore, the most philosophical and natural method, it seems to me, is to fall back upon that remaining sense; for, of all the senses through which we gain these facts, these two—the eye and the ear—are those through which we derive the larger and almost the whole, we might say, amount of these facts. The hearing being cut off, the deaf mute is confined to the seeing sense altogether. The seeing sense, I think we may say, gives the most vivid impressions we receive of the external world. Hence, philosophically considered, we should only attempt to teach deaf mutes through the eye; and my observations, which have not been limited, as I have visited most of these institutions, goes to confirm the philosophy of this method of instruction. I think the deaf mute must naturally expect to be taught through the eye, and almost exclusively. I mean mentally. Whether the speaking comes in as an advantage in the social element or not, the mental growth must depend upon the eye. I have seen several schools where the speaking method was relied upon almost wholly; but I wanted no greater proof of the superiority of our natural or sign language, than the fact that the very moment they escaped the teacher's eye, the boys and girls would go to talking together by signs. I noticed another thing, that whilst they were thus talking through the eye, their faces were lighted up with signs of intelligence and interest, just as much as with children possessed of all the senses; but as soon as addressed through the organs of speech, not having the use of the organs of hearing, they settled down again into a sort of clock-work manner; and I think it is unpleasant work, from the fact that very few of those who have been practicing for years, continue the practice after leaving school. And yet it is not without interest that I have seen this, and am glad that the experiment is being tried, though I think it never can succeed as a means of developing intellectual power. It is very natural that parents who have children that are deaf, should desire to hear them speak. I can very readily imagine how a mother's heart would thrill to hear her child who had never spoken, converse in articulated tones. As a means of social in-

ruction, and for bringing the deaf mute into communication with those who ive hearing, I think it is a valuable thing, but it is only supplementary to the her. I agree with the essay, however, that mental instruction—that instruction ich brings the child into communication with the outer world—must always be rough the eye; and I think I see in this only the objective method of teaching. think we have in this one of the best proofs of the importance of laying hold of ture and the world around us in giving instruction to youth. There can manistly be no idea in a deaf mute's mind, until it has been translated through the ght to the mind. Hence the sight must be intimately carried all along their inruction. It seems to me, in getting these ideas into the minds of deaf mutes definitely, there must be a great deal of difficulty, and it must be only by repeating the rocess over and over, until the impression is made and the knowledge is thoroughly ained by them. We have seen the deaf mute, deprived of one sense, thus developed by this mode of instruction. Idiotic youth are also, I think, instructed by a imilar method. Idiotic children are not only deprived of one sense, but, at best, ossess all the senses in a very feeble degree; hence, the first work of instruction is o intensify their ideas through objects from the outward world, and, by bringing hem constantly in contact with them by many repetitions, at last the feeble intellect is induced to take hold, and gets a firmer and firmer grasp upon things about it. So in all cases it is a building up process, precisely the same as in children with all the senses normally developed.

I saw in my visits some very wonderful results of teaching the spoken language to deaf mutes. I was glad when I saw it, still I came away from those institutions, where I found the teachers as enthusiastic as anywhere, I believe, not at all convinced that that was the only plan of teaching deaf mutes, as they claim it to be. The Professor Bell system, which might be called a picture language, as it is a ort of pictured representation of the elements of words together with an outline of the position of the vocal organs in uttering them, may, in the future, be perfected o as to be worked up to with greater facility in giving instruction; but it is yet a matter of experiment. He claims that those who are congenitally deaf mutes, may be taught to speak as well as youth who hear. I doubt, however, if that will ever be realized. Representing the positions of the organs of speech in this way, must id a great deal in this method of instruction; but the great difficulty, as every one an see, in teaching deaf mutes to speak, is that of giving the inflections, and those who are congenital deaf mutes that have been taught to speak, speak in a very disagreeable way. To their friends, however, it may sound more agreeable than to the ars of strangers.

W. D. Henkle, of Salem, Ohio: The principles underlying the report we have ist heard, dive down pretty deeply into the philosophy of things. Mr. Fay disussed the subject of the order of thought, or of language, as we have it in English; ie question I wanted to ask is this, whether the deaf mutes conform to the same rder we do, or whether they develop a different order?

Mr. Fay: They have an order which will be fixed in some person, while another ute, perhaps, will use a form somewhat different. Just as different artists might o in painting a picture; one will begin at one point, and another at another. One rtist may do it in a certain way, and another in another way. So one mute may ave his own way, and another, another way. It depends upon his manner of reiving the same thing.

Mr. Henkle: The reason I asked the question is this, The question often arises hether there is a natural order of thought? The question I had been disposed to nswer in the negative, that there is no natural order of thought. Mr. Fay's explaation portrays the fact that every man has an order of thought for himself. But

which mind must grow, or alter the character of the forces by which its growth is promoted. All we can properly do is to wait upon nature, and supply to the inherent forces of the mind their appropriate excitations. We may, indeed, hinder the process of development by improper appliances; we may, and no doubt oftentimes do, reverse nature's order. but the result must be an enfeebled and distorted product, very different from the normal type.

The province of the educator, then, is to ascertain, as far as possible, what are the laws of mental growth, and, at the appropriate time, in proper order and in sufficient measure, to bring young minds in contact with those agencies which are best adapted to elicit and develop the spontaneous energies of the human faculties. It is not to be assumed that the growth of mind proceeds by such clearly defined stages, that a certain set of appliances must be used up to a given point, and that, at that point, these must be set aside and a different set employed. The truth would be more nearly represented by the statement that, with increased age up to maturity, the mind, like the body, requires larger portions of the same aliment. Every power of the mind is awake and active at an early age. It would be hard to say at what age the child commences the exercise of imagination and reason as well as perception. It must be admitted, however, that, at some periods of life, some of the mind's activities predominate, absorbing the larger share of mental energy, while others are subordinate and collateral; and still I think this is not more true of the mind at different periods of development than at different stages of any investigation which the mind undertakes.

There seem to be three processes or three directions of mental activity. The mind is either engaged in acquiring knowledge; in analyzing, comparing, classifying or combining what has been acquired; or in making application of its acquisitions to practical purposes; and though these processes may be, and often are, going on simultaneously, yet I think there are periods in the growth of mind, when one predominates over the other to such an extent that we may, with propriety, speak of the acquisitive period, the elaborative period, &c., bearing distinctly in mind that these terms are only intended to indicate the predominating tendency of the mind at a given period.

If these principles are correct, they may be made serviceable in determining what is the best course of study for a system of schools. The acquisitive period clearly belongs to the first years of life. It is then that the mind is chiefly occupied with the various objects of attention around it. At the commencement of this period the mind of the child is entirely beyond the reach of formal tuition. We are not even able to mark the period of its opening. We only know that the acquisitive process commences very early and proceeds very rapidly, as the result of natural excitations operating from without, and calling forth the responsive activities of powers within. Thus nature indicates to us the true method of mental development. Children should be brought into immediate contact with nature and reality, before attempting to present the symbols of either as subjects of study, and this not only indicates the prevailing type of instruction demanded in early childhood; it also points out the true order in which any new subject should ordinarily be presented at any period of school life.

Just when this susceptibility of the mind to impressions from without begins to yield its predominance to a proneness to elaborate its previous acquisitions, would be hard to determine. Much earlier, doubtless, in some cases than in others. It is probable, however, that in most cases the period of its greatest activity is past before the child comes under the formal tuition of the teacher. And this suggests the question whether "object lessons" properly so called, are of as great value, as a part of a course of school instruction, as their advocates claim. Object lessons are valuable in their proper place, and their introduction into our schools has done much to improve our methods of instruction; but there is danger that, by their use, an excess of stimulus be applied to the perceptive faculties, at a time when assistance and guidance in the use of the reflective powers are more needed. In the intellectual, as well as in the moral world, the path of truth is a straight and narrow path. Extremes on either hand are to be equally avoided. The transition from the home to the school should not be too abrupt. Object lessons and familiar conversations on common things might properly occupy considerable time on the child's first introduction to school, but, like his clothing, he will soon either wear them out or outgrow them. Of course, all good teaching, in whatever grade of schools, partakes more or less of an objective character. Illustration and simile should be largely used; and, where the nature of the subject will admit, the eye and the hand should be appealed to by the use of tangible objects. In regard to this there is probably no difference of opinion.

The period of time over which a common school course of instruction should extend seems to be pretty well settled. Most will agree in putting it at about eight years. Experience and observation seem to indicate that this is about the average time necessary for the completion of such a course.

Language lessons should occupy a prominent place throughout the entire course. The ability to utter the elementary sounds of the language, both separately and in combination, should be early acquired. The spelling of words should be learned only as fast as they come into use by the pupil. Every reading lesson should be made a language study, and a prominent object of every recitation should be to cultivate the power of expression. The pupil's vocabulary should be continually extended, and he should read the language fluently, and speak and write it with at least tolerable facility and accuracy. Grammar, if introduced into the course at all, should be placed near its close.

Writing and drawing should go hand in hand throughout the whole course.

Vocal music should not come in for sake of ornament merely, but it should be a daily exercise throughout the course, and every pupil should learn to read and sing plain music at sight.

Geography and arithmetic might, without detriment, occupy less time than they have usually occupied, leaving room for the introduction of the elements of natural science, though perhaps our experience has not yet well determined what place these should hold in a common school course of instruction.

Every American youth should know something of the history of his own country, though more time is devoted to this subject in some of our schools than its importance demands.

Of course there are many things pertaining to general culture—such, for example, as the cultivation of the moral and religious sensibilities, which depend so directly on the living teacher, and which, to be effective, must permeate all the instruction and all the discipline of the school, that they can scarcely take shape in a course of study like that proposed.

DISCUSSION OF MR. FINDLEY'S PAPER.

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The different opinion held by the educators of deaf mutes, and all the discussions, more or less heated, of the last fifty years have centered around the question, how best to teach language in its spoken or written forms. These are the living questions to-day. They are embraced in the following category:

1st. Why not use and require of the pupil oral speech?

2d. Why not use and require spelled or written speech?

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The discussion of these questions will develop the principles and methods which underlie the subject of deaf-mute education, and which in their logical results determine the details of the daily school-room routine.

1st. Why not use and require of the pupil oral speech?

In a hearing school, the very first morning, there gathers around the teacher a group of children who, every one of them, can hardly restrain the disposition to talk and whisper long enough for him, in a few well chosen words, to draw his first lines of order. Why not pursue the same way, only more patiently, with a class of keen-eyed mutes? The fact is, the teacher of the hearing school, his first morning, can use language with a certainty of being understood, and will listen to statements expressed with a correctness which the best talkers and lip-readers among mutes have never equalled in any school upon their graduation day. By experiment the teacher of the mute class will ascertain that one or two of the twenty can hear words shouted near to one or both ears. He may also discover one or two more, who did not lose their hearing until after they had learned to talk, and from these, by pronouncing familiar words composed largely of labial sounds, slowly and with frequent repetitions, he may occasionally secure a response, assuring him that he is understood. The teacher is glad to find two or three even who escape the designation of "mute." But how with the sixteen or seventeen remaining who can neither understand the teacher nor talk to him, but who yet constitute the body of the class and give it its character. They are children who, for ten years, the most plastic years of life, have been surrounded by talkers whose social interest in them has been chiefly expended in efforts to induce them to talk, or at least to understand what is said to them. Baffled and disappointed in this, the parents have brought their child, always the pet of the household, to the institution to be educated. Withdrawn from his home life, the social influence of which has failed to draw him from his profound isolation, he is now added to a community of hundreds similarly afflicted with deafness. Fond parents, who have perhaps expended hundreds of dollars in efforts to restore the hearing of their child, efforts only to be abandoned as abortive, still cling to the possibility that their particular child may be able to acquire the articulation and lip-reading, and so be restored to general society. Poor mute child! What hast thou not suffered at the surgeon's hand, guided by the sympathy, it may be the pride, of the parental heart! What art thou yet to suffer in laborious efforts to get what, in a large majority of cases, can never be obtained! Theorizers and, it may be, teachers have told the parent that all is easy, and that the good day is coming, is even now dawning, when the name "mute" will cease to be applied to any intelligent youth, except as a stigma. The answer to these fond parental expectations, and these positive professional claims, is found in the experience of the best European schools, where, after two generations of experiment, it is admitted that but a small fraction of the pupils taught are ever able to hold easy oral conversation with their fellow men. The intelligent gentleman or lady, as the case may be, whom

somebody has met somewhere, who understands all that was said in private and in public, and who conversed readily upon all subjects without exciting the suspicion of his deafness, is a mythical personage, finding a place naturally in the poetical department of the literature of deaf-mute education. With the greater number of deaf mutes, as they exist in our communities, efforts to carry forward their education by oral speech, will fail to give speech to any useful extent, and, which is a very serious evil, will also consume the time needed to acquire the elements of a good English education by an easier way. It is probable that with a large majority of deaf mutes the improved method, as it is called, if applied and persisted in, will prove to be merely a mangling process. Pains should be taken to restore to the use of oral speech those who are partially deaf, and those who retain something of the speech which they had acquired before they became deaf. A few other mutes, congenitally so, will also be discovered possessing sufficient ambition, adaptation and skill, to undertake the difficult art. Excepting the partially deaf, who properly are excluded from the category of deaf mutes, these latter should pursue the art, at institutions at least, as a separate branch of study. The results of this study, growing from year to year, should be utilized by the conscientious teacher in the exercises of the school-room, where all who can talk or read lips with any facility or satisfaction, should be encouraged and required to do so to the extent of their proficiency. How large a fraction of the school these will constitute, the experience and increasing skill of the future must determine. At present, in our state institutions, it comprises a little above one-tenth of the whole number.

2d. Why not use and require written or spelled speech?

Granting that oral speech, except with a small fraction, is impracticable, and that for the mass of deaf mutes some other method of approach must be pursued, may not the teacher maintain the second line proposed, namely, that of using himself, and of requiring the pupil to use written speech or language spelled with the manual alphabet?

Excepting the semi-mutes described above, at the outset of the course, at least, this is impossible. The teacher has yet to give the pupil the first forms of words, and, to do it most effectively, numberless illustrations and associated ideas should be introduced. Pictures can be used, and they are relied upon as far as available, but their scope and adaptation are very limited. The necessities of the situation, in all schools, articulating schools included, force the teacher to avail himself for a time of the mute's own language, pantomime, a language characterized in certain quarters as a most dangerous thing. The emergency, however, calls for desperate expedient, and the language is used and the chasm bridged over. With advancing education, however, acquaintance with written speech advances quite rapidly, and comes to be used in place of the dangerous dialect of pantomime, licensed temporarily under protest. The permanence and clearness of a written statement give it as a method of communication a high value, and one recognized largely in the best hearing schools. But in school exercises, continued throughout a whole day, and day after day, a serious drawback arises from the great amount of time consumed in the merely mechanical labor of writing. Writing at the usual

rate, as compared with ordinary oral speech, has been found to require a time about nine times as long. To obviate this evil, the manual alphabet has been invented, and is now universally employed in the education of mutes. Finger spelling, confusing though it appears to a novice, really cuts down the mechanical element of time to one third, or to only three times the time occupied by oral communication. Still, even with the assistance of the manual alphabet, written or spelled speech is to a mute exceedingly tedious. His mind chafes to escape from its mechanical fetters. No mute, however well educated, employs the manual alphabet to any considerable extent, much less written speech, in his familiar intercourse with his mute friends. The same is true also of those who spoke fluently up to a certain age, when, becoming deaf, they came to the institution for education. This irrepressible liking for another language does not, however, exclude the ready use of written speech, and, as a method, written speech, supplemented by spelled speech, should be employed in all cases where it is readily understood, and for a time as prolonged as may be, without wearying the pupil, or destroying his interest in the immediate object of recitation or attention. Its use will steadily increase until at length, in the more advanced classes, it will be used almost entirely.

3d. Why not use and require syllabic or word signs, made in the order of the English sentence?

The part of this question referring to syllabic signs has been already answered, for syllables have no value until the words which they compose are understood. Words learned, a syllabic alphabet, if clear, would be as much superior to the manual alphabet as it should prove to be more rapid. Of the various syllabic alphabets as yet offered to the mute, all have been rejected for their obscurity and ambiguity.

Word signs are ordinarily free from both ambiguity and obscurity, and win a ready acceptance. They are rapid, more rapid even than oral utterance. Now, why can not a teacher, driven to the temporary use of pantomime before his pupils have gained a knowledge of written language, use it in a modified form, so constructing, dividing, and arranging a series of word signs as really to use the order of the English sentence, each word being represented by its own characteristic sign? Would not such a method tend to restrict the exuberant disorderly mental operations of the pupil to the order of the English sentence, and so, while escaping the detrimental influence of pantomime, prepare him, unconsciously, for the acquisition of a correct order whenever, in his advancement, his word signs have become translated into their spelled, written, or, it may be, oral equivalents?

We do not claim for the English language an order the most natural, and yet we experience no particular difficulty in carrying forward our mental commerce along its channels. We are familiar with the fundamental connection existing between our mental order of thought and our written style. When we attempt to compose in a foreign tongue the influence of our vernacular speech in corrupting the necessary order of the sentence we know. And how often do we observe the same influence at work corrupting the English style of a foreigner. This corrupting influence of a vernacular language constitutes the central objection to the use of pantomime. From this element comes

whatever of injurious influence it exerts upon the mute. Now, what difficulty is there in constructing a sign language to order, one from which the corrupting element of a faulty order has been eliminated?

Such has been the reasoning of the educators of deaf mutes for fifty years The desirability of so important a result has been universally admitted, and to secure it, the sign making of institutions has been reduced rigorously to the order of the English sentence, and that for a generation. And in other institutions, with the same ultimate purpose, the same course has been pursued more or less, especially with the younger classes. And yet in every class of every institution in the land, the moment the pupil passes the threshold which separates the proprieties of the school room from the freedom of ordinary social intercourse, every muscle, and feature, and limb of the pupil combine to enact a panorama of pantomime, n which many of the teacher's signs are used indeed, but no more resembling them than the finished garment resembles the fragments upon a tailor's table. All attempts to control the order of the mute's pantomime have utterly failed. The language has a genius and laws of its own which he who uses it, must respect. Shall a teacher persist in using a language of his own, theoretically valuable, when every one of his pupils continually uses, and prefers to use another? With their remarkable ingenuity in comprehending signs, it is probable that they will catch the teacher's meaning with his English order, but not one of them will ever adopt it for himself, nor will the teacher himself use it outside of the school room. Why not, then, when necessary, use the pupil's own language, inverted as it is, but no jargon, and so secure greater vividness of impression, and at the same time by patient toil, educate the pupil away from the faulty order induced by his vernacular?

4th. Why use pantomime?

Or rather, why not use pantomime? What else can the teacher use in the earlier stages of the course? And at every stage explanations will occasionally be needed, where nothing can be substituted for it. It is the natural language of every deaf person, whether born so or made so subsequently. Amid influences favoring the development and use of pantomime and uncounteracted, it will surely come, and the speech previously possessed will gradually disappear. This powerful proclivity of the deaf to pantomime is not always allowed its due weight. Because a mute boy, upon entering school, has but a few uncouth motions, it is sometimes said that he learns his signs at school, which is largely true, and the wonder is expressed, why so much pains has been taken to teach what has so little value compared with the English language itself. And sometimes it is even suggested that the instructor has been delinquent in allowing the mental ground of the pupil to be so preoccupied. But the fact is, the teacher can not exclude signs from use if he would. The language is the outgrowth of the mute's social instincts, and is as natural to him as oral speech is to the hearing. He came to the institution with few signs, because his circumstances had been unfavorable for their development.

How many articulate sounds, if indeed a single sentence, would a hearing child utter, if from infancy it had been confined to the society of mutes? Give the hearing infant a speaking parent, and it acquires oral language, and

we say it is its natural language. So give a mute child a mute parent, and it will come to school at ten years of age with a sign language of considerable value. The rude sounds of the isolated hearing child and the uncouth motions of the isolated mute are both indications of a natural desire and adaptation for a better language. Two hearing children isolated would rapidly construct an oral language; and so two mutes associated will soon construct a stock of signs mutually understood. It matters not whether they are significant or conventional; they are signs, and are accepted by the users as representative of ideas. It needs no instruction to give a circle of mutes a sign language. A teacher can undoubtedly help them to one much more expressive and exact than the one which they unaided will adopt. He is familiar with the efforts of many years and, it may be, of generations. He has given to the language the study and the criticism of a cultivated taste. He can and, therefore, should do all in his power to improve their language, but he can not prevent them from having one. The most stringent rules of articulating schools have never been able to repress it. Crushed to earth, it will spring up again upon the first shower of feeling. Semi mutes even, who already possess a correct use of language and have a cultivated literary taste, take up the sign language, in spite of all the exhortations of their teachers, with great avidity, and prefer to use it ever after, when with hearing people even if the latter will allow them to do so.

The mind of a deaf person craves a language addressed to a living sense. Any other language is to him an artificial one in the most real sense of the term. This natural tendency of the mute to the use of pantomime, and his actual use of it upon every conceivable subject, affords to the instructor an exact and rapid method of communicating with his pupils, if he chooses to use it. However educated the pupil may come to be in subsequent years, the time will never arrive in his history when he will not prefer it in conversation, if his companion is equally skillful in its use. Supplemented by manual spelling for technical expressions, it is fully equal to all the necessities of the school-room, the lecture-room, and the pulpit. By using it, the teacher, the first morning of school, may communicate ideas and offer illustrations, which could not be introduced by the forms of oral or written language for years thereafter. However slow the pupil may be to remember his written or printed lesson, he forgets no pantomime. The teacher, however, knows that, potent and sufficient as pantomime really is as an educating influence and as a vehicle of ideas, yet the pupil must eventually come to the correct and free use of the ordinary forms of expression, if he is to be, in any substantial sense, restored to society, and to have for himself the full benefit of books and newspapers. The judicious teacher will, therefore, use pantomime only when the slender stock of words understood by the pupil requires it. Used freely at first, it will gradually give way to better forms of thought, the teacher meanwhile keeping his eye steadily upon that highest and best achievement of mute education—the ability to use the English language correctly.

Or, comprehensively, the true methods of deaf-mute education are--to use and require oral speech, if possible; or, if that can not be, to use and require written speech, as far as it can be done, intelligibly and without weariness

leaving for all those processes of education, where neither is available, the use of the mute's own pantomime, remembering ever that it is but a scaffolding, employed by the safe builder until the main structure—language—is completed, and then laid aside. The mute will, indeed, always return to it with the affection felt by every person for his own vernacular tongue; but living, as he does, surrounded by speaking persons, he will, however reluctantly, conform to their chosen medium of ideas, looking forward with earnest hope to that great unfolding, where the many tongues of earth, discordant now, will blend in one universal language.

DISCUSSION OF MR. FAY'S PAPER.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati: I am interested in this special branch of instruction on account of its own great method of bringing educational advantages, very long ago, to those that were left to grow up without any formative sort of instruction, except what the nature of surrounding circumstances might give them. I am greatly interested in it because I think through that instruction, and the methods adopted by those who have had most experience, we may derive lessons that will profit us in instructing those we may have under our care. I think that every one will agree, that all the primary facts that are obtained by the mind, and which are the foundations of its advancement in after life, are derived through the senses. The deaf mute is cut off from one channel of communication with the outer world; that is, cut off from expressing relations between the outward object and its internal nature, and this must take place altogether through one sense. Therefore, the most philosophical and natural method, it seems to me, is to fall back upon that remaining sense; for, of all the senses through which we gain these facts, these two—the eye and the ear—are those through which we derive the larger and almost the whole, we might say, amount of these facts. The hearing being cut off, the deaf mute is confined to the seeing sense altogether. The seeing sense, I think we may say, gives the most vivid impressions we receive of the external world. Hence, philosophically considered, we should only attempt to teach deaf mutes through the eye; and my observations, which have not been limited, as I have visited most of these institutions, goes to confirm the philosophy of this method of instruction. I think the deaf mute must naturally expect to be taught through the eye, and almost exclusively. I mean mentally. Whether the speaking comes in as an advantage in the social element or not, the mental growth must depend upon the eye. I have seen several schools where the speaking method was relied upon almost wholly; but I wanted no greater proof of the superiority of our natural or sign language, than the fact that the very moment they escaped the teacher's eye, the boys and girls would go to talking together by signs. I noticed another thing, that whilst they were thus talking through the eye, their faces were lighted up with signs of intelligence and interest, just as much as with children possessed of all the senses; but as soon as addressed through the organs of speech, not having the use of the organs of hearing, they settled down again into a sort of clock-work manner; and I think it is unpleasant work, from the fact that very few of those who have been practicing for years, continue the practice after leaving school. And yet it is not without interest that I have seen this, and am glad that the experiment is being tried, though I think it never can succeed as a means of developing intellectual power. It is very natural that parents who have children that are deaf, should desire to hear them speak. I can very readily imagine how a mother's heart would thrill to hear her child who had never spoken, converse in articulated tones. As a means of social in-

struction, and for bringing the deaf mute into communication with those who have hearing, I think it is a valuable thing, but it is only supplementary to the other. I agree with the essay, however, that mental instruction—that instruction which brings the child into communication with the outer world—must always be through the eye; and I think I see in this only the objective method of teaching. I think we have in this one of the best proofs of the importance of laying hold of nature and the world around us in giving instruction to youth. There can manifestly be no idea in a deaf mute's mind, until it has been translated through the sight to the mind. Hence the sight must be intimately carried all along their instruction. It seems to me, in getting these ideas into the minds of deaf mutes definitely, there must be a great deal of difficulty, and it must be only by repeating the process over and over, until the impression is made and the knowledge is thoroughly gained by them. We have seen the deaf mute, deprived of one sense, thus developed by this mode of instruction. Idiotic youth are also, I think, instructed by a similar method. Idiotic children are not only deprived of one sense, but, at best, possess all the senses in a very feeble degree; hence, the first work of instruction is to intensify their ideas through objects from the outward world, and, by bringing them constantly in contact with them by many repetitions, at last the feeble intellect is induced to take hold, and gets a firmer and firmer grasp upon things about it. So in all cases it is a building up process, precisely the same as in children with all the senses normally developed.

I saw in my visits some very wonderful results of teaching the spoken language to deaf mutes. I was glad when I saw it, still I came away from those institutions, where I found the teachers as enthusiastic as anywhere, I believe, not at all convinced that that was the only plan of teaching deaf mutes, as they claim it to be. The Professor Bell system, which might be called a picture language, as it is a sort of pictured representation of the elements of words together with an outline of the position of the vocal organs in uttering them, may, in the future, be perfected so as to be worked up to with greater facility in giving instruction; but it is yet a matter of experiment. He claims that those who are congenitally deaf mutes, may be taught to speak as well as youth who hear. I doubt, however, if that will ever be realized. Representing the positions of the organs of speech in this way, must aid a great deal in this method of instruction; but the great difficulty, as every one can see, in teaching deaf mutes to speak, is that of giving the inflections, and those who are congenital deaf mutes that have been taught to speak, speak in a very disagreeable way. To their friends, however, it may sound more agreeable than to the ears of strangers.

W. D. Henkle, of Salem, Ohio: The principles underlying the report we have just heard, dive down pretty deeply into the philosophy of things. Mr. Fay discussed the subject of the order of thought, or of language, as we have it in English; the question I wanted to ask is this, whether the deaf mutes conform to the same order we do, or whether they develop a different order?

Mr. Fay: They have an order which will be fixed in some person, while another mute, perhaps, will use a form somewhat different. Just as different artists might do in painting a picture; one will begin at one point, and another at another. One artist may do it in a certain way, and another in another way. So one mute may have his own way, and another, another way. It depends upon his manner of receiving the same thing.

Mr. Henkle: The reason I asked the question is this, The question often arises whether there is a natural order of thought? The question I had been disposed to answer in the negative, that there is no natural order of thought. Mr. Fay's explanation portrays the fact that every man has an order of thought for himself. But

when a language is built up, as we build up the English language, and as you build up your language in school, you introduce an order of expression; and whether we have a natural order of thought or not, we have a certain way of speaking. One man gets up to speak upon a matter, and will think of something in the latter part of his subject, which another would present first, and follows an order his own. I think the English language does not follow the order in which we think. Herbert Spencer talks a little on this subject in his essay on composition, and I asked the question, as it seemed to be brought out in this discussion. There is an individuality in this whole thing, and yet if we should all talk in accordance with the order of our thoughts, perhaps our ideas would not come out as they do.

W. WATKINS, of Middletown, Ohio: I have been interested in this subject, both with regard to deaf mutes and the order of thought. I have been more particularly interested from the fact of the recollections of my earlier years spent with my grandfather, more than seventy-five years of age, who was perfectly deaf, having become so at the age of seven years. I wish to ask Mr. Fay to what extent this articulation has been carried under the most favorable circumstances, particularly because I had the good fortune to be present at an exhibition at the Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Indianapolis, where one of the most interesting features was the reading of an intelligent young lady. She articulated and read for us intelligibly, but in a disagreeable, screeching voice, such as no hearing person ever employs. I would like to know whether this defect has, in any case, ever been overcome?

MR. FAY: I do not know that there are any pupils who could not be made to talk in a certain degree, but probably a very small number would talk with any degree of proficiency, and those who do, quit as soon as they leave the school. I have no idea that five per cent. will persevere in such a course. I trained a boy who never heard an articulate sound in his life, who became able to recite his lesson in botany, philosophy, or arithmetic, so that his teacher could understand him, and a person familiar with the subject would know much he said; at my earnest suggestion, he pursued this course more than ten years, though he was very anxious to drop it. I had a class of fifty who followed the same method for two years, and they were anxious to go back to the old plan of instruction, and I had to yield to their importunity. I found when I put them back, that they had not advanced half as much as those who had been continued in the old method, and they were put into a lower class. We have many that talk quite well, but they are those who heard until they were seven or eight years of age.

MR. HANCOCK: Would that boy you mentioned be able to read the lips of others than his teachers?

MR. FAY: Yes. I know several who are lip readers, and who can carry on considerable conversation, but these cases are few. There are no better lip readers than right here in Ohio—no better either in Indianapolis or Northampton.

MR. STEVENS, of Salem, Ohio: Is it not the case that they sometimes learn to talk without any special instruction?

MR. FAY: In such cases, it is usually from the instuctions of a kind father or mother or sister.

MR. STEVENS: I remember one case in the State of Maine, of a person with no special training, that seemed to understand everything that was said. He was a very talented young man.

MR. HANCOCK: Would you rely upon that plan for mental development?

MR. FAY: No. I am prepared now to say what I would not have said three years ago.

ON A UNIFORM METHOD OF COMPUTING PERCENTAGES OF ATTENDANCE.

BY A. T. WILES, ZANESVILLE, OHIO.

As to the desirableness of uniformity in our methods of computing school statistics, whether of attendance or of any thing else, there can be no question when we consider how entirely worthless such statistics are for all the purposes of comparison, whether of the same schools for successive years or of the schools of different localities, without such uniformity.

The new superintendent, by a skillful manipulation of the figures, shows that there has been a marked improvement in the condition of the schools since the days of his predecessor, and the reports of each several city show that its schools are manifestly in advance of those of other cities of the same class, in several important particulars.

"The figures are full of encouragement", is an expression very commonly met with in this connection in school reports.

The difficulty is not in a disposition on the part of the reporter to make a false showing, but in his desire to make a good showing, and in the facilities furnished, by want of uniform method, for such showing.

The practical questions before us at this time are, Whether it is possible to devise a method of computing attendance which shall so far meet the views of school officers as to be adopted as a uniform method? and what that method shall be?

This must, of course, be simply a matter of agreement, since this Association possesses no authority to enforce its views upon any one who does not choose to adopt them.

The object of school statistics is to show, with as much accuracy as possible, the actual work performed by the schools, the nearness with which they come to fulfilling the ends for which they have been established, and the degree of confidence reposed in them by their patrons and the community.

We have, as the first element in computing attendance, the school census, showing the entire number of children and youth entitled by law to school privileges. This furnishes a basis of comparison, which will give us some important facts.

The aggregate membership of the schools compared with the school census will show what portion of those who are entitled to the privileges of the schools have been disposed to avail themselves of them.

But, as the entire school course, including the high-school department, may be completed by the age of seventeen or eighteen, it is fair to presume that a considerable number of those included in the enumeration have already availed themselves of the full benefit of the schools, furnishing a slight modification in favor of a fair showing for the schools.

The membership of the high school department, however, is but a small portion of the aggregate membership of the schools—not more, perhaps, than two or three per cent. And, as it is the education furnished by the schools of lower grade that constitues their chief work and their chief glory, it may be well to

exclude the high-school department from our comparison, in order to show how far the common education is made to reach the masses for whose benefit it is instituted.

The primary and grammar grades, or the grades below the high school, include from seven to nine years, and may be completed by the age of fifteen, or, making allowance for interruptions of attendance, to which most pupils are liable to be subjected in some part of their school course, by the age of sixteen.

Comparing, then, the aggregate enrollment in the primary and grammar grades,—excluding therefrom such as are sixteen years of age or over, with the enumeration of youth between the ages of five and sixteen—excluding therefrom such members of the high school as may be under sixteen,—we have the answer to one of the most important questions relating to our schools, namely: How thoroughly do our schools succeed in carrying the benefits of a common education to the people? How completely do they satisfy the educational wants of the masses?

A third comparison, showing the degree of permanence in the membership of our schools, and, to a considerable degree, their success and the confidence of their patrons in them, is of the average daily attendance with the aggregate membership. If this comparison shows a low ratio, we are apprised thereby of the fact that many of our pupils remain in school for but a small part of the year, and inferentially that our schools are not meeting the wants of the community as they should.

These three comparisons, fairly made and prominently stated, are of great value in testing the vitality of our school system.

There is, however, another item of these statistics of attendance, on which great stress is commonly laid and about which there is some diversity of views and practice, and toward the proper adjustment of which it is possibly expected that this discussion should tend, namely: the percentage of average daily attendance compared with some other average—the average number belonging, the average weekly enrollment, or the average monthly enrollment.

We have clung with a commendable degree of tenacity to the *average number belonging*, by a skillful use of which it was possible to figure out a high percentage of daily attendance.

The want of confidence in these percentages has given rise to a variety of rules by which it is sought to infuse uniformity into the method of ascertaining the average number belonging.

The one with which I first became acquainted and which I used for several years, was a simple one and, possibly, as good a one as any of its more favored successors, namely: The pupil's membership begins with his first day in school for the year and ends with his last day in school for the year; all intervening absence, whether long or short, to be counted against his attendance.

Another is what is known as the Chicago rule, by which the pupil's membership begins with his first day in school and ceases upon his declaration of withdrawal, or after three or five days' absence without such declaration.

This is a good rule, but liable to abuse. The teacher who is working for a high per cent. of attendance more than for the actual presence of his pupils

will be sure to know at once when a withdrawal has taken place, and to construe withdrawal out of very slender material.

Then there is the average weekly enrollment plan of our late School Commissioner, by which a pupil becomes a member of school on Monday morning, though he may not be present till Friday afternoon, and his membership ceases with Friday afternoon, although he may have died on Monday afternoon after having been present in the forenoon. This is also a good rule, but we can not get quite so good a per cent. by it.

The average monthly enrollment plan, as proposed by our present School Commissioner, is similar to the preceding and liable to the same objection in much greater degree. By this rule the lovers of high percents are sorely aggrieved, and with good reason.

The latest rule is the one promulgated from the St. Louis meeting of the National Teachers' Convention. By it membership begins with the first day in school and continues through three consecutive days of absence, whatever the cause of absence may be.

Of all these rules for determining the average number belonging as a basis for computing the percentage of attendance, the second, or Chicago rule, is, perhaps, the most objectionable, in that it furnishes the largest facilities for figuring out roseate reports on this subject.

Any one of the others is good enough, provided it is made the uniform rule, so that, when we take up the reports of other schools for the purpose of comparing their success and prosperity with our own, we may know that all are computed on a common basis and represent the facts fairly.

If preference can be given to any of these rules, I am of the opinion that the last named, or St. Louis rule, is to be preferred as presenting the least number of objections that can be urged against a rule, which, from the nature of the case, must be more or less arbitrary.

To sum up, then, our reports on attendance should present the following comparisons:

1. The aggregate enrollment of the schools with the school census.
2. The aggregate enrollment of all grades below the high school—exclusive of those over fifteen years of age, with the school census between five and sixteen—exclusive of those under sixteen, in the high school.
3. The average daily attendance with the aggregate enrollment.
4. The average daily attendance with the average number belonging, as determined by some uniform rule.

DISCUSSION OF MR. WILES'S PAPER.

W. D. Henkle, Salem, Ohio: The subject for discussion this afternoon is one that has been agitating superintendents in the United States for a number of years past. I was appointed to report on this subject by the committee at the meeting of the National Superintendents' Association in Washington. In the proceedings of that meeting, the different schemes for reporting were given, and, in order to make it simple and plain, I put it into a mathematical formula.

I do not propose here to discuss these various ways of finding percentage, but simply to allude to a method something like that suggested by the reporter this after-

noon. At the close of the year, find the number of different pupils that have been in the school; then multiply the average daily attendance by one hundred, and divide the product by the enrollment; that would be a low percentage. Then, again, if we divide the year into quarters, we might take the average daily attendance, and the enrollment for the quarter, say ten or twelve weeks—whatever you choose to call a quarter—and divide as before. This would give still higher percentage. Take again, the average for the month, and it would be still higher. The next step would be to multiply the average daily attendance by one hundred, and divide by the average weekly enrollment; this will give about the same per cent. as the Chicago rule, so called because it is strictly carried out in Chicago.

I think I stated, if not in this Association, at St. Louis, last summer, or else at Washington, that I had found places in Ohio where pupils had the habit of going up to the teacher, and saying, "I wish to withdraw from the school." The name is erased, and the pupil stays out a day, if necessary, and goes back to be recognized as a scholar, and knows that that day didn't count against him in the week's attendance. By that means the Chicago rule works beautifully in making a "roseate" percentage, as the reporter says. I say you can have it on an annual enrollment, or on the average monthly enrollment, or average weekly enrollment, and you might go farther and have it on an average daily enrollment, and make out the per cent. on either or all of these.

In a good school the average will be about nine five per cent., and all above ninety-five per cent., I think, indicates that it is done at the sacrifice of something else—the sacrifice perhaps of health, or honesty.

A MEMBER: Do we understand that to apply to all the schools, or to a particular school?

MR. HENKLE: It will apply to the graded school at Salem. We reach ninety-four—we call it ninety-four because it comes nearer that than anything else. I think when we are in good running order, we can have a daily attendance of ninety-five per cent. of the average weekly enrollment.

PRESIDENT: And no small-pox?

MR. HENKLE: And no small-pox—nothing of the kind.

Mr. Harris has been working nearly up to that, allowing about three days for the "jagged edges," as he calls it.

GEO. S. ORMSBY, of Xenia: I can understand some things, I think, tolerably well, but I confess this is a subject I do not understand. I do not understand what our ex-commissioner means by a weekly enrollment, and I don't understand what he means by a monthly enrollment. It is something I don't understand, sir, and I attribute it to my stupidity, not to a want of truth in itself. I should be glad to be informed in respect to this, so that I may act intelligently, when I make out my reports, reporting to the School Commissioner something about monthly enrollments. I think, sir, that the difficulty of this whole matter is that we are not willing to report the truth. (Laughter and applause.) In regard to the attendance, I understand when a pupil is enrolled in the school he remains enrolled until the school ends, unless he withdraws. He must be a member of the school until he withdraws. If he attends this week, and not next week, and then attends school the week after that, and is out again the next week, and so on, each alternate week, he has not withdrawn, but is a member of the school from the time of his enrollment until he leaves the school, and that is all you can say about it. Why talk about monthly enrollments and weekly enrollments? We take monthly enrollments, and on that system we don't get quite so large a percentage as we desire, so we take a weekly enrollment and get something larger. By the same rule we ought to take daily enrollments, and then we should have a hundred per cent. (Great laughter.) Every

pupil that is present in school is counted, and I think it makes about one hundred per cent.

MR. HENKLE. I suppose some of the pupils come only half a day?

MR. ORMSBY: Well, then, we hav'nt come down quite close enough. Let us narrow it down and have half-day enrollments, and then we shall be sure to have the average attendance a hundred per cent. (Renewed laughter.) That is the only proper way if we want the highest percentage.

Now, Mr. President, there is something in this matter, and I have been vexed over it more than over almost anything else in our school reports. It is, as I have said, because we are not quite willing to report the facts. What is this percentage for? We understand what the enrollment is, and what the average daily attendance is. Now, the average per cent. of the attendance is made to indicate the regularity of the attendance, and nothing else, and you must make it on some basis that will tell the truth. If there be fifty pupils in the school, and forty-nine are present every day, and one pupil is absent almost every other day, the per cent. is quite low. Some system, perhaps, might be adopted by which such irregular pupils might be taken out of the way, and then by calculating the percentage on the number absolutely belonging to the school—which of course would be found by substracting this irregular attendance which did not belong to the school—the true average daily attendance would be found. Now, my five minutes are out, and I should be glad if any gentleman here would explain this matter of monthly and weekly enrollment, so that I can understand it.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati: I don't know whether my friend here knows what monthly or weekly enrollments are or not, but he gets up more heat on the subject this afternoon than I can. Whether we take the average attendance on the enrollment for each month, or each week, we want to arrive at some results. When I make a report to the board at the end of a month, we want to determine what? We want to determine the *morale* of the schools in that particular, and if we have the *morale* in that particular, we have it in others.

Here is Miss A. teaching. She may have quite a large amount of irregularity in attendance. A boy may be present one day and absent one, and there may be several of that kind. Let it go on a whole year until it is summed up, and you may not be able to determine what the cause of the low percentage is. Hence, I say it is not dishonest to calculate the per cent. on a shorter time, and I see no reason for getting warm about it.

But I have a word to say on another point that was incidentally alluded to. Whilst this is of no importance except we have a uniform standard, whether upon a weekly or a monthly enrollment, yet, there is not that disposition on the part of superintendents honestly to represent the standing of their schools. They appear to be doing well, and, being convinced that they are doing well, show that their schools, from year to year, are always improving; and it is one of the most astonishing things in the world, that the schools have not long since reached a state of perfection. You may go to a town that has had, within the last ten years, ten different superintendents, and every one of these ten has made a great improvement in the schools. (Laughter.) Now, the position of a superintendent of public schools following these figures by his own hand—and he has nobody to check him in making his own figures—is one of great responsibility, and ought to be accompanied with great honesty.

Sometimes when the figures are made out correctly, they do not represent the facts in the case. Take for example Chicago—and I think the Chicago rule a very bad rule, because it is not a certain rule; many of the other rules are better because more definite—take the city of Chicago, and compare it with Cincinnati;—and I

don't do this in an invidious way. In Chicago they show the attendance to be ninety-six and some odd per cent., while in Cincinnati it falls about one below that; but when the average attendance of the children enrolled is computed, we find that in Cincinnati—though Chicago may have more, some weeks—the average is seventy-eight on the whole number enrolled, while in Chicago it is only sixty-two and a half per cent. In one respect, from a superficial view, it would appear that the Chicago schools made a better showing than those of Cincinnati, but taken in another way, it would seem that those of Cincinnati were better. Chicago may have more pupils this week, and less next week; pupils going in and going out a short time, to return again, feel that it is no matter. But in Cincinnati, however numerous the withdrawals, we have that large majority—seventy-eight per cent.—who stay in the school through the whole yeer, making that average upon the whole number enrolled. Both these statements may be true, yet, in taking any one of them, you would draw a wrong conclusion.

But I want to enforce the idea first introduced by Mr. Wiles, that no superintendent ought to cipher up his schools to make them appear really better than they are. That is a point we ought to guard against with the greatest care. Even when the superintendent continues in the same school year after year, unless he is constantly vigilant over himself, it is natural for him—small-pox or no small-pox—to make his schools appear better than the year before.

It is the same in regard to the grading. We appear to be always gaining, and showing a little greater number of pupils going up to higher grades each year. Now, how are we to arrive at any definite understanding from these reports. Some may be as high as seventy per cent., some sixty, and nobody can tell what Chicago's standing is beside that of Cincinnati, nor compare the schools of Columbus with those of Dayton; but I hope all are doing good work, though we have no means of understanding the relative standing of the schools of our country.

PRES. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College: It appears to me that, as a matter of mathematics, we can find out the average daily attendance—that it is to be done by a regular rule. We can always find the total enrollment in any given period of time; that will be the whole number of names that have been enrolled in the school during that time. Now, what we want to get at is the average enrollment. Some, perhaps, may use one rule, some another. Some may compute it on the monthly enrollment, and some upon a weekly enrollment. It seems to me that the suggestion in the report is the simplest and clearest plan, and I cannot see why it is not adopted. That is, that every pupil's attendance shall be taken when he enters the school in any one year; and that his enrollment shall be taken as beginning at that time, and ending on the last day or half day that he was in the school that year. It seems to me that that rule is the best, and that there is nothing arbitrary about it. When a child leaves the school, I hold he should not be considered as enrolled thereafter. It seems to me that his enrollment should cease when his attendance ceases for the year.

MR. HANCOCK: While we are required to make a monthly report, as we must in all the large cities, suppose a child comes in and in a short time withdraws and goes out to work, and after a while returns, how will you fill up that gap in your report?

MR. TAPPAN: It seems to me the fact that you are required to make a monthly report, does not vary the fact that that child's attendance has been irregular. It seems to me if a child goes out for a week, or a month, and you get rid of it by adopting an enrollment for a week or a month at a time, you get rid of giving the entire facts in the case. The rule should be counted from the first day of the year on which he enters, to the last day of the year on which he attends. Or if you want to make it for a month, take it for a month, but it may be more difficult and make

work, but I think there is no other way of getting at what we want, a true of the average daily attendance to the enrollment, than by the plan suggested.

. STEVENS, of Salem: It seems to me the best of the plans named is the weekly because the superintendent reports at the end of the week just the average for veek, based on the number in the school for the week. I think that is a valu- ule for a superintendent and a teacher. Again, if the record is for a month, ı it would be too much work for the superintendent to examine the reports of achers for so short a time as a week, then, as President Tappan has said, if a ır is in one week and out another, the time should count for the whole month, se if he is out a week, it gives for that week an incorrect statement.

. HANCOCK: We have a re-entry column.

. STEVENS: I can not see how they are getting at it, if they are dropping off in eantime. Can you, President Tappan?

ıs. TAPPAN: It seems to me it does not give anything that is very valuable.

. STEVENS: It seems to me it ought to show how many at the end of the ı, or year, have been on the roll. Say one thousand pupils have been on the ır that year. How does it compare with the average daily attendance for the ' That ought to be reported, and can be, uniformly, throughout the state, or d States, if all will agree to it. But, perhaps, we never can reach any thing ı kind. It seems to me however, that all these reports are valuable. Not ıhould [we have the average weekly reports, but it would be well to have the ge monthly report, and there ought, by all means, to be an average yearly re- in comparison with the average daily attendance as shown by the former.

ı. T. W. HARVEY, State School Commissioner: I do not rise to discuss the sub- t all, or to allude to the value of the paper read by Mr. Wiles, but to explain thought best to change the blanks for the annual reports of the boards of edu- ı, from the weekly to the monthly enrollment plan. The weekly enrollment has been tried for two years. Last year the auditors of twenty-four counties ted that item, and also the item basing the per cent. upon the average daily at- nce and the weekly enrollment. I have seen several of those twenty-four audi- ınd those with whom I have conversed, have informed me that they themselves many of the estimates upon which their reports were based, so that so far as tem being of any value in the report, we have no reason to suppose it can be, made without any data in their hands upon which to base a statement. It is hat the failures were on the part of townships. The country teachers, as a gen- hing, do not in their reports return the two items. Neither can township clerks their data in those term reports, ascertain those two facts. Now, if after two ' trial only twenty-four counties can report these items, and probably not half ıse reporting them from authentic data, what use is there to try to report those at all? Those items, you must remember, are made up from the reports of hips and graded schools. Graded schools are counted in with the township ts. I thought it better to change to a monthly enrollment, as it is less compli- , and there were reasons other than this. In the first place, the weekly enroll- merely gives a sort of idea of the existence of certain minor causes of absen- ı. The monthly enrollment tests these minor causes and others. The term t will test still others, while the yearly enrollment will test the major as well as inor causes. We are required to keep up our schools at least six months in the Country schools are continued six months, and many graded schools eight or nd some more than ten months during the year. Now I ask this question: a report from an enrollment for the year, made in this way from schools hold- ıssions for various lengths of time, from six to ten months, with the percent-

age based upon schools continued in that manner, give us any information of any value whatever? (Voice, "No.") Of course not. There must be something definite upon which this per cent. is estimated.

MR. TAPPAN: I can not see it.

MR. HARVEY: I do not stand here to say that monthly enrollments will give every thing we wish, but I do say that monthly enrollments will test many of the minor causes and some of the major causes of non-attendance. If we take a weekly enrollment, should it not be that upon which we base the percentage? Certainly. We record the enrollment to be made for the month; it is the enrollment for the month; and when the percentage is made upon the average by this enrollment, we have one per cent. I hold that if we take this course, we ascertain many of the major causes of absenteeism, as well as many of the minor causes shown by the weekly plan. Should we take the term reports on the same basis, we should find that some are for eleven weeks, some for ten, and others for two terms of sixteen weeks, during the year, and we can not arrive at any correct comparison. But by taking the average on the monthly enrollment, I claim that we ascertain very nearly the same facts we should from the enrollment, if the terms could be made of the same length throughout the state.

PRES. TAPPAN: If you count the number of days from the very time that John entered the school until the last day he was in school that term, whether a term of five or eleven weeks, and so of Mary and Sarah and James, and of every one who attended, and divide this total enrollment of all the pupils for that term by the number of days of school, you will have the average enrollment for the term, no matter what length of time the term may have continued; and, it seems to me, in doing that I have the same result, because it does not depend upon the beginning or end of weeks. I should then have the average enrollment, the total enrollment, and the average daily attendance to compare with each other for each school.

MR. HARVEY: I am in the same position you were, as I can not understand that. (Laughter.)

W. D. HENKLE, of Salem, O.: I want to say, in reference to a remark of the present School Commissioner, that it is a poor argument to offer, that, because only twenty-four county auditors made out the proper reports, the plan is a failure. We have been trying since 1853 to get the enrollment of pupils in the state, and do not get it now within ten thousand. But this whole matter of percentage is simply a side matter. That is a point I want to bring out. Our reports ought to show the total enrollment for the year, the average monthly enrollment,—having no rules for membership except presence in school,—then the average weekly attendance and the average daily attendance. Then you could make out your own percentage.

MR. HANCOCK: No matter what we may think of these percents, it must be remembered that people place certain estimates upon them, and when they see us reports ninety-five per cent, and know the results in the school, they ask us why it is that "your reports show ninety-five per cent. as the attendance in your school, and yet you claim that there is a great amount of absenteeism. Your report shows that there is not a great amount of absenteeism." No matter upon what basis we estimate it, the people attach certain importance to it.

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SOMETHING ABOUT LIBRARIES, BOOKS, AND READING.

It is an excellent thing for every young person of literary inclination to begin early the collection of a private library. I do not see why women should not make this an object in life; there is certainly in it nothing unwomanly; and a common complaint is, that women require more objects of serious interest to occupy their minds than society generally furnishes. The expense of money necessary to procure a respectable collection of books is not great. Did you ever calculate how many good books may be had for one hundred dollars? Enough, if judiciously selected, to furnish an individual with the means of a most thorough culture. And fifty cents a week put aside for a book fund will amount to a hundred dollars in less than four years; and four years are but a little part of life.

I would not recommend that $100 or $150, or any particular sum, be saved up in order to buy a number of volumes at a time. The best way is to determine what particular book, of permanent worth, you most need and desire, and purchase that as soon as possible. Become familiar with the contents of that book. Read and ponder it until its main points, at least, are mastered before buying another book. Then again procure what you most need and desire, and read it attentively as before. The thorough reading of one substantial work makes the reading of a second easier and quicker. An experienced reader, whose mind is dis-

ciplined by systematic application, is able to read the solidest matter rapidly and with delight. A library collected in the manner described, growing up with the growth of the collector's mind, yields the utmost profit and pleasure; while its pecuniary cost, distributed through a long time, is scarcely felt at all. The most important question to consider is not how you can afford to buy books, but what books it is most prudent to buy.

It is difficult to prescribe for another what should be read. Special capacities and aptitudes require special provision. The reading of an individual ought, also, to be determined somewhat by his prospective vocation. We of the teacher's profession, for example, should devote an extra proportion of time to literature directly related to our particular work. Nevertheless there is a certain sort of general knowledge and cultivation that men and women need in addition to that of which they must make practical use in individual pursuits; and so much are we all alike in mental constitution, that, as a rule, that reading which has proven valuable to others, will do us good also. The opportunity given, the healthy and hungry mind will, by a wonderful instinct and adaptation to nature, commonly select for its own good and pleasure that reading which, by the verdict of the world's experience, is permanently valuable. On this point Ruskin remarks, in speaking of the education of girls:

"And if she can have access to a good library of old and classical books, there need be no choosing at all . . . . turn your girl loose into the old library every wet day, and let her alone."

But this "good library of old and classical books" is what we can not be presumed to have at command. How shall we collect it? Is it not a worthy ambition that aims to enrich home with so excellent a donation? What elevation of the plane of life, what noble advancement of civilization, what refinement of society, would be brought about in the course of a dozen years, could this good library of "old and classical books" find a room and readers in every private house! There is a kind of books, well designated "world-classics", that contain the very flower and essence of the best thought and imagination of the greatest authors; such works as Milton meant when he said:

"Books are not absolutely dead things, but doe contain a potencie of life in them to be as active as that soul whose progeny they are; nay, they do preserve as in a viall the purest efficacie and extraction of that living intellect that bred them."

And when he said further:

"Almost as good kill a man as kill a good Book; who kills a man kills a

reasonable creature, God's Image; but he who destroyes a good Book, kills reason itself, kills the Image of God as it were in the eye. Many a man lives a burden to the Earth; but a good book is the precious life blood of a master-spirit embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life."

Of such books it is not hard to learn the names. Neither are they usually costly nor rare. As the most useful things in nature are most accessible, so in commerce, as a rule, the best is the plentiest. The Bible, and Homer, and Shakspeare; Plato, Plutarch, and Cicero; Gibbon, and Bacon, and Burke; Cuvier, and Faraday, and Humboldt; Don Quixote, the Arabian Nights, and Crusoe; these are cheap and in every book-store; these are worth their weight in gold.

There is a pretty large number of books, chiefly belletristic, that every person who claims a place in cultivated society, is presumed by his associates to have read. Such are the works of the most excellent poets, the masterpieces of fiction, certain famous biographies, and many miscellaneous productions. To enumerate a list would not be expected in a paper. The allusions and references of one author often serve as an introduction to many books. The reading of Carlyle's Heroes and Hero Worship, ten years ago, induced me to buy a dozen books, and led me to lines of research that are not completed yet.

As this paper is intended to be practical, it will not be out of place to recommend some approved habits to be formed in the use of books.

It is a most excellent practice to commit accurately to memory passages of undoubted superiority in either poetry or prose. There are two principal benefits to be derived from this. First the mind is stored with the best and greatest ideas clothed in the most appropriate words, and is thereby necessarily improved perpetually, for we can not repeatedly contemplate perfect models without being influenced by them. It is, moreover, a pure pleasure to feel that we have at command the very essence of a book, without the trouble of handling the form. We can read at will without the use of eyes. Nor is it a poor accomplishment to be able to quote accurately upon occasion or to know whether another quotes accurately or not without referring to a book. Every educated young person ought to be his own book of quotations. Besides all this, the art of recitation is a beautiful, graceful, and highly intellectual art, and might be cultivated with the most desirable results.

The second principal benefit, however, to be derived from committing to memory is, that the memory is strengthed by use, and

a trained memory is indispensable to whoever would advantageously employ his other faculties. Can you listen to a lecture or a sermon of an hour's length, and then reproduce on paper or in speech the principal points made, and the language of the most interesting parts? If not, and if you desire to be able to do so, make it a habit to *learn by heart*, as the phrase is, every day, some passage, be it only a single line, and you will be surprised to discover how rapidly the memory will acquire quickness and retentive power.

I would also commend the practice of copying into a blank book, such passages from your reading as forcibly strike your mind, or as you think may prove especially serviceable to dwell upon, or to use at some future time.

The mere reading of a book, even though carefully done and understood, is not enough. We must reflect on what we read. Sometimes we do not fully realize the profit from a book until long after we have finished the reading of it. Where the reading ends the thinking should begin with renewed intensity. A minute's reading often provokes a day's thinking. The ability to think is the measure of our education and of our native powers. To read much and to think little, is to weaken the mind and to waste our priceless hours. For this reason, beware of the temptation of newspapers, magazines, and the novels of the hour. Who can think profitably on the frivolous, the temporary, the contradictory matters that this class of publications pour into our minds? And who can afford to fritter his hours on that which aids him not, considering how much we have to do in life and how little time to do it in? That which is of practical importance in the current periodicals, of course we should learn; that which is necessary to relax, rest, and amuse we also require; but further than this the literature of the passing hour is injurious.

In conclusion, let us direct our attention to the subject of reading aloud. No exercise is more animating to both body and soul than intelligent vocal reading. The pleasing reproduction of fine thoughts, feelings, and fancies, by means of the trained voice, is a truly marvelous accomplishment. It is a difficult art, impossible to those who do not comprehend meanings, as well as sounds and inflections. One *may* understand and not read well; no one can read well and not understand. Perhaps the best single test of one's literary qualifications that can be thought of, is the trial of reading some thoughtful passage in which many

ideas are compressed. The elocutionist, though he be master of "Rush on the Voice", can not read what he can not think. A false intonation, a wrong pause, an inappropriate tone betrays him; we feel that he has failed to get the author's sense.

All accomplishments, all arts, depend upon underlying intelligence. The way you sing a song at the piano, reveals to the critical auditor the depth and breadth of your culture. The music-master can not disguise your ignorance, if you are ignorant,—your essential intelligence, if you are intelligent, will sound through your singing though every note be wrong.

Cincinnati, Ohio. W. H. VENABLE.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES.

No. 2.—FUNDAMENTAL BRANCHES OF EDUCATION.

Every science may be logically classified. Such a classification consists of fundamental divisions, which admit of subsidiary divisions, related to each other as genera and species. The science of education, if there be such a science, ought to admit of the same logical treatment. In this article I propose to consider the question, What are the fundamental divisions of the science of education?

The science of education, it is now generally admitted, embraces several fundamental branches which, as in the case of other sciences, bear certain necessary and logical relations to each other, and admit of logical division and subdivision. To determine what these branches are, let us analyze the problem of education, and, by a comparison of its elements, endeavor to ascertain the fundamental divisions which shall embrace every thing that belongs to the science. Such an investigation is of especial importance; for, if the analysis and the inferences drawn from it are correct, it will tend to harmonize the opinions of educators, and fix the foundations of the science upon a permanent basis.

The Problem of Education.—The Problem of Education embraces three distinct elements. First, there must be some being to be educated. This being is *Man*. Second, there must be some material to be used in the educational process. This material, consisting of facts and truths, ideas and sentiments, may be embraced under the head of *Matter* of education. We thus obtain two elements of the educational problem: man to be educated,

and matter to be used in his education—a subjective and an objective element. But the analysis is not yet complete. This educational work is not to be done by chance; there is a proper manner in which it is to be performed. Hence arises a third element of the educational problem, which we may call the *Method* of education.

The problem of education is thus seen to embrace three elements—*man*, *matter*, and *method*. *Man* is the subjective element; *matter*, the objective element; and *method*, the process by which these two are linked together in the attainment of educational results. The old problem of common school education, it will be remembered, has been facetiously called the problem of "the *three R's*—readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic"; the real problem of education may seriously be called the problem of the *three M's*—Man, Matter, Method.

The Branches of Education.—From this primary analysis we are enabled to determine the fundamental branches of the science of education. Considering Man, the first element of the problem, we perceive that he has powers and susceptibilities which may be developed. The process of developing these powers is called *Culture*. The consideration of the manner in which this culture is to be given, gives rise to the first branch of education, called *Methods of Culture*.

Considering Matter, the second element of the problem, we perceive that knowledge may be imparted to the mind. The process of imparting knowledge is called *Instruction*. The consideration of the manner in which instruction may be imparted, gives rise to a second branch of the science, called *Methods of Instruction*.

These two branches are logically distinguished. The one seeks to draw out the powers of the mind; the other, to put knowledge into the mind. Each, of course, implies the other. To give culture to the mind, we make use of knowledge; to impart instruction, there must be some growth of the mental powers. The two processes, however, are not the same; and the laws and methods of culture are different from those of instruction. The division is therefore logical and essential. In one, the nature of man and the method of developing his powers are made the subject of consideration; in the other, the nature of knowledge and the methods of teaching it. The one is subjective, working from within outward; the other is objective, working from without inward. They are apparently two hemispheres of

cience, which, united, give it completeness and perfection.
ıese two branches, from the analysis given above, seem to
r the whole ground of the subject. The three elements of
›roblem were seen to be, man, matter, method. The union
ıan and method gives us methods of culture; the union of
er and method gives us methods of instruction; and since
ıre and instruction include all the possible educational pro-
›s, it would seem that these two branches embrace the entire
ıce. A little further analysis, however, gives rise to another
ch closely connected with these primary branches, and pos-
contained in them, but so important as to be considered by
› as coördinate with these two, and meriting a distinct treat-
t. Thus, since culture and instruction are to be given to a
ber of pupils together, called a school, and this school is to
:ganized and governed, suitable houses erected, etc., there
other subjects for discussion, not immediately embraced in,
t least, not conveniently treated under, the two primary
ches of the science. What logical disposition to make of
part of the subject has been a question Noticing the rela-
of its parts, educators have treated them under one head
various names. The most appropriate term for this part of
ıubject that I have seen, is that given by Prof. Wickersham
s "School Economy."

ıis threefold division of the science of education is not new,
ıugh it is recent. It seems to have been gradually develop-
in the minds of educators for the past several years. We
had essays and lectures on Physical Culture, Intellectual
ure, Moral Culture, etc.; much has been written under the
s of Methods of Teaching and Methods of Instruction; and
:nglish work entitled "School Management" treats of the
ıer, school-house, registration, classification, organization,
The first to state formally this division as a complete clas-
.tion, so far as I have noticed, is the author referred to
e.

hether this generalization is strictly logical and the best in
tice, is a question which ought to be carefully considered
lefinitely determined. In my own opinion, it is both logi-
ınd practical, and is entitled to universal adoption. The
ce of education may, therefore, be said to embrace three
amental branches, viz: *Methods of Culture, Methods of In-
tion*, and *School Economy*.

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don't do this in an invidious way. In Chicago they show the attendance to be ninety-six and some odd per cent., while in Cincinnati it falls about one below that; but when the average attendance of the children enrolled is computed, we find that in Cincinnati—though Chicago may have more, some weeks—the average is seventy-eight on the whole number enrolled, while in Chicago it is only sixty-two and a half per cent. In one respect, from a superficial view, it would appear that the Chicago schools made a better showing than those of Cincinnati, but taken in another way, it would seem that those of Cincinnati were better. Chicago may have more pupils this week, and less next week; pupils going in and going out a short time, to return again, feel that it is no matter. But in Cincinnati, however numerous the withdrawals, we have that large majority—seventy-eight per cent.—who stay in the school through the whole yeer, making that average upon the whole number enrolled. Both these statements may be true, yet, in taking any one of them, you would draw a wrong conclusion.

But I want to enforce the idea first introduced by Mr. Wiles, that no superintendent ought to cipher up his schools to make them appear really better than they are. That is a point we ought to guard against with the greatest care. Even when the superintendent continues in the same school year after year, unless he is constantly vigilant over himself, it is natural for him—small-pox or no small-pox—to make his schools appear better than the year before.

It is the same in regard to the grading. We appear to be always gaining, and showing a little greater number of pupils going up to higher grades each year. Now, how are we to arrive at any definite understanding from these reports. Some may be as high as seventy per cent., some sixty, and nobody can tell what Chicago's standing is beside that of Cincinnati, nor compare the schools of Columbus with those of Dayton; but I hope all are doing good work, though we have no means of understanding the relative standing of the schools of our country.

PRES. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College: It appears to me that, as a matter of mathematics, we can find out the average daily attendance—that it is to be done by a regular rule. We can always find the total enrollment in any given period of time; that will be the whole number of names that have been enrolled in the school during that time. Now, what we want to get at is the average enrollment. Some, perhaps, may use one rule, some another. Some may compute it on the monthly enrollment, and some upon a weekly enrollment. It seems to me that the suggestion in the report is the simplest and clearest plan, and I cannot see why it is not adopted. That is, that every pupil's attendance shall be taken when he enters the school in any one year; and that his enrollment shall be taken as beginning at that time, and ending on the last day or half day that he was in the school that year. It seems to me that that rule is the best, and that there is nothing arbitrary about it. When a child leaves the school, I hold he should not be considered as enrolled thereafter. It seems to me that his enrollment should cease when his attendance ceases for the year.

MR. HANCOCK: While we are required to make a monthly report, as we must in all the large cities, suppose a child comes in and in a short time withdraws and goes out to work, and after a while returns, how will you fill up that gap in your report?

MR. TAPPAN: It seems to me the fact that you are required to make a monthly report, does not vary the fact that that child's attendance has been irregular. It seems to me if a child goes out for a week, or a month, and you get rid of it by adopting an enrollment for a week or a month at a time, you get rid of giving the entire facts in the case. The rule should be counted from the first day of the year on which he enters, to the last day of the year on which he attends. Or if you want to make it for a month, take it for a month, but it may be more difficult and make

more work, but I think there is no other way of getting at what we want, a true ratio of the average daily attendance to the enrollment, than by the plan suggested.

MR. STEVENS, of Salem: It seems to me the best of the plans named is the weekly plan, because the superintendent reports at the end of the week just the average for that week, based on the number in the school for the week. I think that is a valuable rule for a superintendent and a teacher. Again, if the record is for a month, where it would be too much work for the superintendent to examine the reports of the teachers for so short a time as a week, then, as President Tappan has said, if a scholar is in one week and out another, the time should count for the whole month, because if he is out a week, it gives for that week an incorrect statement.

MR. HANCOCK: We have a re-entry column.

MR. STEVENS: I can not see how they are getting at it, if they are dropping off in the meantime. Can you, President Tappan?

PRES. TAPPAN: It seems to me it does not give anything that is very valuable.

MR. STEVENS: It seems to me it ought to show how many at the end of the month, or year, have been on the roll. Say one thousand pupils have been on the roll for that year. How does it compare with the average daily attendance for the time? That ought to be reported, and can be, uniformly, throughout the state, or United States, if all will agree to it. But, perhaps, we never can reach any thing of the kind. It seems to me however, that all these reports are valuable. Not only should we have the average weekly reports, but it would be well to have the average monthly report, and there ought, by all means, to be an average yearly report, in comparison with the average daily attendance as shown by the former.

HON. T. W. HARVEY, State School Commissioner: I do not rise to discuss the subject at all, or to allude to the value of the paper read by Mr. Wiles, but to explain why I thought best to change the blanks for the annual reports of the boards of education, from the weekly to the monthly enrollment plan. The weekly enrollment plan has been tried for two years. Last year the auditors of twenty-four counties reported that item, and also the item basing the per cent. upon the average daily attendance and the weekly enrollment. I have seen several of those twenty-four auditors, and those with whom I have conversed, have informed me that they themselves made many of the estimates upon which their reports were based, so that so far as that item being of any value in the report, we have no reason to suppose it can be, when made without any data in their hands upon which to base a statement. It is true that the failures were on the part of townships. The country teachers, as a general thing, do not in their reports return the two items. Neither can township clerks from their data in those term reports, ascertain those two facts. Now, if after two years' trial only twenty-four counties can report these items, and probably not half of those reporting them from authentic data, what use is there to try to report those items at all? Those items, you must remember, are made up from the reports of townships and graded schools. Graded schools are counted in with the township reports. I thought it better to change to a monthly enrollment, as it is less complicated, and there were reasons other than this. In the first place, the weekly enrollment merely gives a sort of idea of the existence of certain minor causes of absenteeism. The monthly enrollment tests these minor causes and others. The term report will test still others, while the yearly enrollment will test the major as well as the minor causes. We are required to keep up our schools at least six months in the year. Country schools are continued six months, and many graded schools eight or ten, and some more than ten months during the year. Now I ask this question: Does a report from an enrollment for the year, made in this way from schools holding sessions for various lengths of time, from six to ten months, with the percent-

age based upon schools continued in that manner, give us any information of any value whatever? (Voice, "No.") Of course not. There must be something definite upon which this per cent. is estimated.

MR. TAPPAN: I can not see it.

MR. HARVEY: I do not stand here to say that monthly enrollments will give every thing we wish, but I do say that monthly enrollments will test many of the minor causes and some of the major causes of non-attendance. If we take a weekly enrollment, should it not be that upon which we base the percentage? Certainly. We record the enrollment to be made for the month; it is the enrollment for the month; and when the percentage is made upon the average by this enrollment, we have one per cent. I hold that if we take this course, we ascertain many of the major causes of absenteeism, as well as many of the minor causes shown by the weekly plan. Should we take the term reports on the same basis, we should find that some are for eleven weeks, some for ten, and others for two terms of sixteen weeks, during the year, and we can not arrive at any correct comparison. But by taking the average on the monthly enrollment, I claim that we ascertain very nearly the same facts we should from the enrollment, if the terms could be made of the same length throughout the state.

PRES. TAPPAN: If you count the number of days from the very time that John entered the school until the last day he was in school that term, whether a term of five or eleven weeks, and so of Mary and Sarah and James, and of every one who attended, and divide this total enrollment of all the pupils for that term by the number of days of school, you will have the average enrollment for the term, no matter what length of time the term may have continued; and, it seems to me, in doing that I have the same result, because it does not depend upon the beginning or end of weeks. I should then have the average enrollment, the total enrollment, and the average daily attendance to compare with each other for each school.

MR. HARVEY: I am in the same position you were, as I can not understand that. (Laughter.)

W. D. HENKLE, of Salem, O.: I want to say, in reference to a remark of the present School Commissioner, that it is a poor argument to offer, that, because only twenty-four county auditors made out the proper reports, the plan is a failure. We have been trying since 1853 to get the enrollment of pupils in the state, and do not get it now within ten thousand. But this whole matter of percentage is simply a side matter. That is a point I want to bring out. Our reports ought to show the total enrollment for the year, the average monthly enrollment,—having no rules for membership except presence in school,—then the average weekly attendance and the average daily attendance. Then you could make out your own percentage.

Mr. HANCOCK: No matter what we may think of these percents, it must be remembered that people place certain estimates upon them, and when they see us report ninety-five per cent, and know the results in the school, they ask us why it is that "your reports show ninety-five per cent. as the attendance in your school, and yet you claim that there is a great amount of absenteeism. Your report shows that there is not a great amount of absenteeism." No matter upon what basis we estimate it, the people attach certain importance to it.

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SOMETHING ABOUT LIBRARIES, BOOKS, AND READING.

It is an excellent thing for every young person of literary inclination to begin early the collection of a private library. I do not see why women should not make this an object in life; there is certainly in it nothing unwomanly; and a common complaint is, that women require more objects of serious interest to occupy their minds than society generally furnishes. The expense of money necessary to procure a respectable collection of books is not great. Did you ever calculate how many good books may be had for one hundred dollars? Enough, if judiciously selected, to furnish an individual with the means of a most thorough culture. And fifty cents a week put aside for a book fund will amount to a hundred dollars in less than four years; and four years are but a little part of life.

I would not recommend that $100 or $150, or any particular sum, be saved up in order to buy a number of volumes at a time. The best way is to determine what particular book, of permanent worth, you most need and desire, and purchase that as soon as possible. Become familiar with the contents of that book. Read and ponder it until its main points, at least, are mastered before buying another book. Then again procure what you most need and desire, and read it attentively as before. The thorough reading of one substantial work makes the reading of a second easier and quicker. An experienced reader, whose mind is dis-

ciplined by systematic application, is able to read the solidest matter rapidly and with delight. A library collected in the manner described, growing up with the growth of the collector's mind, yields the utmost profit and pleasure; while its pecuniary cost, distributed through a long time, is scarcely felt at all. The most important question to consider is not how you can afford to buy books, but what books it is most prudent to buy.

It is difficult to prescribe for another what should be read. Special capacities and aptitudes require special provision. The reading of an individual ought, also, to be determined somewhat by his prospective vocation. We of the teacher's profession, for example, should devote an extra proportion of time to literature directly related to our particular work. Nevertheless there is a certain sort of general knowledge and cultivation that men and women need in addition to that of which they must make practical use in individual pursuits; and so much are we all alike in mental constitution, that, as a rule, that reading which has proven valuable to others, will do us good also. The opportunity given, the healthy and hungry mind will, by a wonderful instinct and adaptation to nature, commonly select for its own good and pleasure that reading which, by the verdict of the world's experience, is permanently valuable. On this point Ruskin remarks, in speaking of the education of girls:

"And if she can have access to a good library of old and classical books, there need be no choosing at all . . . . turn your girl loose into the old library every wet day, and let her alone."

But this "good library of old and classical books" is what we can not be presumed to have at command. How shall we collect it? Is it not a worthy ambition that aims to enrich home with so excellent a donation? What elevation of the plane of life, what noble advancement of civilization, what refinement of society, would be brought about in the course of a dozen years, could this good library of "old and classical books" find a room and readers in every private house! There is a kind of books, well designated "world-classics", that contain the very flower and essence of the best thought and imagination of the greatest authors; such works as Milton meant when he said:

"Books are not absolutely dead things, but doe contain a potencie of life in them to be as active as that soul whose progeny they are; nay, they do preserve as in a viall the purest efficacie and extraction of that living intellect that bred them."

And when he said further:

"Almost as good kill a man as kill a good Book; who kills a man kills a

reasonable creature, God's Image; but he who destroyes a good Book, kills reason itself, kills the Image of God as it were in the eye. Many a man lives a burden to the Earth; but a good book is the precious life blood of a master-spirit embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life."

Of such books it is not hard to learn the names. Neither are they usually costly nor rare. As the most useful things in nature are most accessible, so in commerce, as a rule, the best is the plentiest. The Bible, and Homer, and Shakspeare; Plato, Plutarch, and Cicero; Gibbon, and Bacon, and Burke; Cuvier, and Faraday, and Humboldt; Don Quixote, the Arabian Nights, and Crusoe; these are cheap and in every book-store; these are worth their weight in gold.

There is a pretty large number of books, chiefly belletristic, that every person who claims a place in cultivated society, is presumed by his associates to have read. Such are the works of the most excellent poets, the masterpieces of fiction, certain famous biographies, and many miscellaneous productions. To enumerate a list would not be expected in a paper. The allusions and references of one author often serve as an introduction to many books. The reading of Carlyle's Heroes and Hero Worship, ten years ago, induced me to buy a dozen books, and led me to lines of research that are not completed yet.

As this paper is intended to be practical, it will not be out of place to recommend some approved habits to be formed in the use of books.

It is a most excellent practice to commit accurately to memory passages of undoubted superiority in either poetry or prose. There are two principal benefits to be derived from this. First the mind is stored with the best and greatest ideas clothed in the most appropriate words, and is thereby necessarily improved perpetually, for we can not repeatedly contemplate perfect models without being influenced by them. It is, moreover, a pure pleasure to feel that we have at command the very essence of a book, without the trouble of handling the form. We can read at will without the use of eyes. Nor is it a poor accomplishment to be able to quote accurately upon occasion or to know whether another quotes accurately or not without referring to a book. Every educated young person ought to be his own book of quotations. Besides all this, the art of recitation is a beautiful, graceful, and highly intellectual art, and might be cultivated with the most desirable results.

The second principal benefit, however, to be derived from committing to memory is, that the memory is strengthed by use, and

a trained memory is indispensable to whoever would advantageously employ his other faculties. Can you listen to a lecture or a sermon of an hour's length, and then reproduce on paper or in speech the principal points made, and the language of the most interesting parts? If not, and if you desire to be able to do so, make it a habit to *learn by heart*, as the phrase is, every day, some passage, be it only a single line, and you will be surprised to discover how rapidly the memory will acquire quickness and retentive power.

I would also commend the practice of copying into a blank book, such passages from your reading as forcibly strike your mind, or as you think may prove especially serviceable to dwell upon, or to use at some future time.

The mere reading of a book, even though carefully done and understood, is not enough. We must reflect on what we read. Sometimes we do not fully realize the profit from a book until long after we have finished the reading of it. Where the reading ends the thinking should begin with renewed intensity. A minute's reading often provokes a day's thinking. The ability to think is the measure of our education and of our native powers. To read much and to think little, is to weaken the mind and to waste our priceless hours. For this reason, beware of the temptation of newspapers, magazines, and the novels of the hour. Who can think profitably on the frivolous, the temporary, the contradictory matters that this class of publications pour into our minds? And who can afford to fritter his hours on that which aids him not, considering how much we have to do in life and how little time to do it in? That which is of practical importance in the current periodicals, of course we should learn; that which is necessary to relax, rest, and amuse we also require; but further than this the literature of the passing hour is injurious.

In conclusion, let us direct our attention to the subject of reading aloud. No exercise is more animating to both body and soul than intelligent vocal reading. The pleasing reproduction of fine thoughts, feelings, and fancies, by means of the trained voice, is a truly marvelous accomplishment. It is a difficult art, impossible to those who do not comprehend meanings, as well as sounds and inflections. One *may* understand and not read well; no one can read well and not understand. Perhaps the best single test of one's literary qualifications that can be thought of, is the trial of reading some thoughtful passage in which many

as are compressed. The elocutionist, though he be master of lush on the Voice", can not read what he can not think. A se intonation, a wrong pause, an inappropriate tone betrays n; we feel that he has failed to get the author's sense.

All accomplishments, all arts, depend upon underlying intelli-nce. The way you sing a song at the piano, reveals to the itical auditor the depth and breadth of your culture. The usic-master can not disguise your ignorance, if you are igno-nt,—your essential intelligence, if you are intelligent, will und through your singing though every note be wrong.

Cincinnati, Ohio. W. H. VENABLE.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES.

No. 2.—FUNDAMENTAL BRANCHES OF EDUCATION.

Every science may be logically classified. Such a classifica-n consists of fundamental divisions, which admit of subsidiary visions, related to each other as genera and species. The ence of education, if there be such a science, ought to admit the same logical treatment. In this article I propose to con-er the question, What are the fundamental divisions of the ence of education?

The science of education, it is now generally admitted, em-aces several fundamental branches which, as in the case of ier sciences, bear certain necessary and logical relations to ch other, and admit of logical division and subdivision. To ermine what these branches are, let us analyze the problem education, and, by a comparison of its elements, endeavor to ertain the fundamental divisions which shall embrace every ng that belongs to the science. Such an investigation is of ecial importance; for, if the analysis and the inferences wn from it are correct, it will tend to harmonize the opinions educators, and fix the foundations of the science upon a per-nent basis.

The Problem of Education.—The Problem of Education em-aces three distinct elements. First, there must be some being be educated. This being is *Man*. Second, there must be some terial to be used in the educational process. This material, sisting of facts and truths, ideas and sentiments, may be em-aced under the head of *Matter* of education. We thus obtain o elements of the educational problem: man to be educated,

and matter to be used in his education—a subjective and an objective element. But the analysis is not yet complete. This educational work is not to be done by chance; there is a proper manner in which it is to be performed. Hence arises a third element of the educational problem, which we may call the *Method* of education.

The problem of education is thus seen to embrace three elements—*man*, *matter*, and *method*. *Man* is the subjective element; *matter*, the objective element; and *method*, the process by which these two are linked together in the attainment of educational results. The old problem of common school education, it will be remembered, has been facetiously called the problem of "the *three R's*—readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic"; the real problem of education may seriously be called the problem of the *three M's*—Man, Matter, Method.

The Branches of Education.—From this primary analysis we are enabled to determine the fundamental branches of the science of education. Considering Man, the first element of the problem, we perceive that he has powers and susceptibilities which may be developed. The process of developing these powers is called *Culture*. The consideration of the manner in which this culture is to be given, gives rise to the first branch of education, called *Methods of Culture*.

Considering Matter, the second element of the problem, we perceive that knowledge may be imparted to the mind. The process of imparting knowledge is called *Instruction*. The consideration of the manner in which instruction may be imparted, gives rise to a second branch of the science, called *Methods of Instruction*.

These two branches are logically distinguished. The one seeks to draw out the powers of the mind; the other, to put knowledge into the mind. Each, of course, implies the other. To give culture to the mind, we make use of knowledge; to impart instruction, there must be some growth of the mental powers. The two processes, however, are not the same; and the laws and methods of culture are different from those of instruction. The division is therefore logical and essential. In one, the nature of man and the method of developing his powers are made the subject of consideration; in the other, the nature of knowledge and the methods of teaching it. The one is subjective, working from within outward; the other is objective, working from without inward. They are apparently two hemispheres of

the science, which, united, give it completeness and perfection.

These two branches, from the analysis given above, seem to cover the whole ground of the subject. The three elements of the problem were seen to be, man, matter, method. The union of man and method gives us methods of culture; the union of matter and method gives us methods of instruction; and since culture and instruction include all the possible educational processes, it would seem that these two branches embrace the entire science. A little further analysis, however, gives rise to another branch closely connected with these primary branches, and possibly contained in them, but so important as to be considered by some as coördinate with these two, and meriting a distinct treatment. Thus, since culture and instruction are to be given to a number of pupils together, called a school, and this school is to be organized and governed, suitable houses erected, etc., there arise other subjects for discussion, not immediately embraced in, or, at least, not conveniently treated under, the two primary branches of the science. What logical disposition to make of this part of the subject has been a question Noticing the relation of its parts, educators have treated them under one head with various names. The most appropriate term for this part of the subject that I have seen, is that given by Prof. Wickersham in his "School Economy."

This threefold division of the science of education is not new, although it is recent. It seems to have been gradually developing in the minds of educators for the past several years. We have had essays and lectures on Physical Culture, Intellectual Culture, Moral Culture, etc.; much has been written under the heads of Methods of Teaching and Methods of Instruction; and an English work entitled "School Management" treats of the teacher, school-house, registration, classification, organization, etc. The first to state formally this division as a complete classification, so far as I have noticed, is the author referred to above.

Whether this generalization is strictly logical and the best in practice, is a question which ought to be carefully considered and definitely determined. In my own opinion, it is both logical and practical, and is entitled to universal adoption. The science of education may, therefore, be said to embrace three fundamental branches, viz: *Methods of Culture*, *Methods of Instruction*, and *School Economy*.

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LANGUAGE CULTURE.

With the gradual departure of log school-houses, hickory switches, and other time-honored institutions, the old days when grammar was a terrible bugbear and a grievous stumbling-block to the child, and an object of contempt to his elders, have nearly passed away. Not but there are yet some antediluvians, who think, "It aint of no use nohow; they never larned no grammar or knowed anything about nouns and varbs and they got along well enough." Nor has it entirely ceased to be a source of terror to the child.

Yet here is just a suspicion of justice in these invectives against grammar, though not because of the reasons generally assigned for them. There *is use* in grammar as well as in any other study, but, as taught in most of our schools, there is none to the child. It is, in itself, a science, and one whose study requires great development of mind, to comprehend its principles and their relations to each other, and demands power to use the reasoning faculties. This power the child has not sufficiently obtained. Perception is the first act of his mind. Conception, the faculty by which he forms mental images of objects he has gained by perception, follows. Then comes the power to judge, and, lastly, to reason, and this power to reason is never very highly developed in childhood. Cultivate the faculties in their natural order, said Pestalozzi. Then since the perceptive faculties are the faculties of the child's mind that are first developed, it follows that only such things should be first taught him as can be learned chiefly through their agency. With the science of grammar this is not the case. It consists of abstractions that, in his present stage of development, can not be comprehended by the child, and often there is a double abstraction that increases the difficulty. It is nothing *real* to him, and, as generally taught, is worse than useless.

Go into any public school you please, and you will continually hear such expressions as, "it aint", "you be", "he done it", "I have saw"; and not only will they be heard in recitation, but in conversation with the teacher. If you follow the children to the play-ground, you will hear worse grammar and still worse slang. But, what is worst of all, the teacher will generally not notice these barbarities of speech,—not having the least idea that it is his duty to correct them. Yet he teaches grammar, and these

children study it. But how? Without the least idea that it can be made applicable to their daily, individual conversation. In their book they find the rule, "The verb must agree with its nominative in person and number." All true enough, but to them it is only a collection of words, which, if they do make complete sense, they do not see it. The very child that glibly repeats the rule, will tell you in the next breath, that he "hates grammar, and wishes they was all in the bottom of the sea", or make some other assertion equally extravagant and ungrammatical. In his daily life he perceives the benefit a knowledge of arithmetic and geography is to him; for not a day passes in which he is not called upon to perfom some of the operations of the former, or in which he does not hear of some of the localities described in the latter. But outside of the school-room he hears nothing of nouns and verbs, or subject and predicate, and they bear no relation to his ordinary pursuits and occupations. Presenting to him only bare facts and abstract statements which he can not see to be of any use or value to him, what wonder that he has for the study of grammar a "holy horror", and resolves, as I once heard a poor child say, "not to *let on* there is such a thing as grammar" if he ever teaches school.

But the old idea that what was good enough for our fathers is good enough for us, is about exploded in this "age of progress." We are beginning to see that, if we would go onward, we must not reverence things simply because they are old. So we are coming to see that it is not necessary to compel the young child to commit long rules and tiresome definitions in grammar, but that we should rather lead him to use correct forms of speech, which, in after study, will be the ground work of the deductions he will easily make in regard to the principles of language. This work should commence with the very first day at school, and continue until the last. It will require patient, unwearied labor on the part of the teacher—work that is apparently unending;—but he should always strive, both by precept and example, to impress upon the minds of the children under his charge the absolute *necessity* of correct and pure language. He should never allow an error of which he is cognizant, to pass unnoticed, whether made in the school-room or on the play-ground, and the cultivation of language should be one aim of every lesson and exercise of the school. In a recitation he should never accept from the pupil a monosyllable or incomplete sentence as an answer to a question. If he does, he has committed two errors.

His question, in the first place, was a violation of the principles of questioning, in that he asked it in such a way as to induce no thought on the part of the pupil; and, secondly, he let pass an opportunity to accustom the child to correct forms of expression. Then the teacher should require the child to give his answer in a complete sentence. For instance, the teacher asks a pupil, "What have I made upon the board?" The pupil should not be allowed to say, as he probably will, "A figure", but, "You have made a figure upon the board." At first, this may sound stilted, but upon actual trial it will be found an excellent method of language drill—one that will be readily taken up by the child.

Not only must the teacher criticise the language used by each child, but he must require the rest of the class to do so, thus not only benefiting the child who made the error, but the class and himself as well. It may sometimes be found profitable to appoint one child as a critic, either for one lesson or for a whole day, to note all the errors made by himself and the other children during his time of office, and report them at a specified time. This will tend to make the pupils careful about their language, as they will not like to have their errors reported before the school. It might be a feasible plan, also, to have each child keep a memorandum of the errors he commits in speaking, to be summed up at the end of the week or month. Thus a record is kept, and, through its instrumentality, he can know whether or not he is making visible improvement.

These, however, are only *general* means of culture; but the special means are too important to be assigned so short a space as must necessarily be filled by this article. But what worthier subject can engross the minds of our teachers, and what labor in our schools is more important? Who can estimate the advantages afforded by a facility of expression, ease of utterance, and correct use of language? They are the sign manual by which the cultivated mind is known, and are the requisites of success in life. They are necessary, not only to the best educated and scientific class of our people, but also to those whose knowledge is more limited—to all classes of people in fact. If our public schools, the colleges of the people, fail to give them, where can they be obtained by far the larger part of our population. The large proportion of the foreign element renders it still more imperative that our schools aim at special cultivation of language.

Contact with the world will not improve one's language, in general, whether he be foreign born or native born, and often

nly serves to intensify errors imbibed in early training. If *abit* but once obtains control, it is almost impossible to break its hains, no matter how strong the will or how determined the esolution to do it; and, among all bad habits, none clings closer han that of using ungrammatical words and phrases. Expressions learned in childhood, when unconscious of their error, will prove a constant source of irritation and mortification all through life,—recurring in the midst of conversation, long after one has become aware that they are wrong.

Still another consideration is the prevalence of *slang*. The custom of using cant words and phrases is constantly on the increase, not only in our own country, but in others, also, though in this case we may bear the palm. Americans are proverbial for their terseness of expression. This, to a certain extent, is desirable; but when it tends to degrade our language, and degenerate our already sufficiently patched-up vocabulary into a mere collection of slang words and phrases, it can not be too severely criticised and condemned.

For these and various other evils of the same nature, some remedy must be found. This remedy must be one that will strike at the root of the whole matter,—one that will reach into the daily and hourly life of the people, and compel them, by the mere force of habit, since all else fails. to a right and adequate appreciation and a correct use of language. This we have tried to show can best be done through the children in the school-room, and we contend that if our teachers thus work, *patiently* and *persistently*, they will find their reward in the increasing purity and dignity of our language.

E. L. Williams.

State Normal School, Peru, Neb.

ELEMENTS OF AN IDEAL SUPERINTENDENT.

What place shall a superintendent of schools have in our educational systems? This is the question before us. Every man has his own place with others, and the character of the place must depend more upon the man who is put into it, than the man upon the place into which he is to be put. We may not, therefore, carve out a niche in a school system, and then say, "Find us a man who will fit it." This may be done in a *structure*,

but never in a *growth*. It may be done in a *rock*, but never in in *water*. Every school system must be mobile like water, and not solidified like a rock; it must be a living growth and not a dead structure. The superintendent should be a part of the growth, and not always distinguishable from other parts, and yet of such constitution as to have a prevailing influence over the fashion of the whole. This influence will depend more upon the man than upon his office—more upon what he really is than upon his title.

If I can briefly sketch my ideal, so that my readers may discern his form, they will at once see what place he will fill. They will, of course, permit me to illustrate the truth of the adage, "It is easier to preach than to practice." No one will be so weak as to suppose, for a moment, that this sketch is an autobiography; for, should such a thing be attempted, it would take away all the force of the first element introduced into the ideal, *modesty*, the opposite of self-conceit.

The man must be so conscious of power as to be self-centered, and yet preserve that consciousness in sacred privacy. He must in like privacy hold the consciousness of reserve power sufficient for any emergency that may arise. An analysis of this power will discover good physical health, cheerful spirit, mental activity, ardent sympathy, warm heart, benevolent purposes, and a strong, though subjected will.

The possession of such power, tempered with modesty, will ensure a second element, *quiet influence*, whereby the man carries to successful issue his own plans through the agency of others. This influence controls the desires of others, and brings them into the channel of his desires, so that what is done by others appears to be of their own determining, and yet is really pre-determined in the mind of the man whose will quietly, yet certainly, has its own way.

The danger attending the possession of such an influence must be counteracted by the presence of a third element—*good generous common sense*, which takes a broad view of the work in all its bearings, and leaves no space for hobbies—none for the furtherance of pet schemes, nor of fancy theories, nor of clap-trap displays. This common sense will forbid all hot-bed processes, will make the man content with slow and steady growth, and will secure patient labor, even though popular applause be withheld for the time. It further implies earnest purpose, steadily cherished and faithfully followed.

Successful labor involves an *acquaintance with details*, which may be counted as a fourth element in the constitution of my ideal. The bearing of this element is *two-fold:* first, toward the more efficient prosecution of the work to be done; and, secondly, in the better appreciation of the trials of those who are assigned to different parts of the great work.

This latter bearing suggests yet a fifth element—that of *active sympathy* with his colaborers, developing itself in a charitable hiding of faults, in a cheerful acknowledgment of whatever is meritorious in present possession or of promise as to future attainment, and in a cordially helpful spirit toward all. Such sympathy will take away all harshness from reproof, and temper with kindness all correction, so that the friend will overshadow the critic, and the good intent will be followed by the desired result.

The relation of the superintendent to the children and their parents will forbid the undue exercise of sympathy for teachers, and will demand the possession of a sixth element—*just discrimination*. Conflicts of opinion will sometimes arise between the servant and the served. It is not presumable that either party is always and entirely in the right. Both sides should be heard and all the evidence weighed, to the end that a just decision shall be rendered. The ability to render such a decision to the mutual satisfaction of both parties, even so far as imperfect human nature will permit, is a rare possession; so rare is it that its attainment is not possible to the unaided human mind. Help from without is essential, and that *without* which is *above*. An inspiration, the result of humble faith in the source of all wisdom, is the great need.

Humble faith is the seventh element, which like a thread runs through the other six, and like a clasp binds them all in a beautiful band. It beautifies *modesty*. It strengthens and increases *influence*. It hallows *common sense*. It enlarges *knowledge*. It softens and sanctifies *sympathy*. It brings into the soul divine light, sending its rays along the most obscure pathway toward a *just decision*. Beside these it is in itself a fountain, ever fresh and unfailing, sending its life-giving currents though the man into all his work.

Such are the elements of my ideal. One in possession of them all, need have no place made for him. He will find all things fitted about him, himself an unobserved center of attraction and of influence.

Chicago, Ill. J. L. PICKARD.

THE GERMAN KINDERGARTEN.

On my first visit to a kindergarten, I was somewhat disappointed; for I had visions of shady groves, beds of flowers, etc., after the manner of the garden of Epicurus, or the groves of the academy where Plato taught. On the contrary, it was situated in the midst of the city of Berlin. There was no garden attached, only an open court for a play ground. A room had been fitted up in the plainest style, and the walls were adorned with picture-cards for object lessons or rather language lessons. Here the little fellows, between the ages of two and six years, are led every morning, bringing a ten o'clock piece, which they call "das zweite frühstück." At noon they are sent home to return again at 2 P.M., spending about six hours per day in the school.

The first object of these schools is to remove the care of the children from mothers who are obliged to work for their daily support, and from those who are able to pay very little, if any, attention to their children during working hours. Besides, thousands of families live in rooms in the second, third, fourth, and fifth story, and their children are not allowed a foot of ground in the open air upon which to exercise. This state of affairs makes the kindergarten, or play schools (spiel schule), as they are called, almost a necessity.

The second object is to furnish instructive amusement to the children. Hence the name spiel schule. The younger children are kept employed with building-blocks and picture-cards; while the older ones are taught straw-weaving and other useful employment of the hands. Singing, plays, and gymnastic exercises in the open air occupy the greater part of the time.

The third object is language culture. The teacher in the school visited took up the picture of a harvest scene in a field of rye, and by questions drew out all they knew about the culture and uses of rye, at the same time giving them additional facts. Complete sentences were used in all cases in asking questions and giving answers, both by teacher and pupils. After the exercise the teacher took up his violin, and the children joined in singing in German, "I want to be an angel."

One remarkable feature in the training of German youth, is the early inculcation of the forms of politeness. ' The little child, who has scarcely begun to talk plainly, enters the school-room,

pproaches the teacher, and, extending his hand, lisps "Guten norgen." When a stranger enters the room, the children rise nd greet him; when he departs, they rise and pronounce, Adieu."

In Dresden I visited the Kinder Bewahr Anstalt. The institution was founded by benevolent ladies of the city. The Queen s an active member, and frequent visitor. On seeing one of hese ladies enter, with her face radiant with smiles for the rowd of little children that gathered around her to receive isses, I could not help thinking that "love among humanity is ike roses by the wayside."

The object of this institution is chiefly to receive the children f parents who are obliged to work away from home. There vere 110 children enrolled. They are brought and taken away, t any time from 7 A.M. till 7 P.M. Each child pays about one ent. per day, and receives food three times per day, viz: bread nd butter at 10 o'clock; soup, vegetables, and meat (twice per veek) for dinner; bread, butter, and beer for supper. In the fternoon they are allowed to take a sleep on matresses. Those f five and six years of age are taught block-building, counting, nd straw-weaving. The others amuse themselves with play hings, games, marches, etc. Here, while in infancy, they begin o learn the movements of the soldier and the graces of the lance. The institution is open the entire year. At Christmas, presents (mostly of clothing) are made to all the children. Their desire to show politeness is so great, that the teacher must estrain them from shaking hands with visitors. They are obust, happy-looking children. They are well cared for, are nstructed and amused, and get wholesome food regularly. Thus nxious parents, who earn their bread by the sweat of their rows, are relieved from a burden of care, and can rear a family, vhich they could not without the assistance of these institutions.

The question is agitated, "Do we want kindergartens in this ountry?" I think not; except it be for the poorest classes of he crowded cities. No one can take the place of a mother, or an understand the wants of a child and contribute to its happiess like a mother. Who can understand the length, breadth, nd fullness of that word, Mother? or of that sweetest word in ur language, Home? Take a child from its home and away om its mother, and you give it a stone instead of bread. The istruction given a child before it has reached the age of six or even years, is of little value because so quickly forgotten. The

first seven years should be the growing age, not the thinking age. Moreover, there are enough sorrows in infancy. Who would wish to increase them, or lessen the joys by confinement and strict observance of rules? Or who would check the happy, joyous outbursts of childish freedom by the dull routine of school or kindergarten life?

Bellefontaine, O. C. W. OAKES.

OBJECT LESSONS.

There is no observant teacher, of a week's experience in school, where he has had charge of the children of widely different classes in the community, who has not noticed the great difference which exists between the common intelligence and the culture of those who come from the homes of educated and thoughtful parents, and of those whose fathers and mothers are either too ignorant, indolent, or pre-occupied, to give attention to the proper education of their children. Though the natural capacity of the one may be the same as that of the other, the advantages of the first in all the work of the school-room become so apparent that they can not be disregarded. He more readily understands what is taught him, though the subject of instruction may be as novel to him as to his less favored companion. His faculty of observation is very much keener, his apprehension is quicker, he has a better knowledge of common things, and a larger vocabulary of terms which he has been accustomed to use with readiness and accuracy; in a word, he is fitted for the instruction of the teacher. His parents have been intelligent companions, always drawing him upward to their own level. Such home education in the earlier years of child life, and even in the first year or two of the ordinary school-going age, is justly esteemed by judicious parents, as more important than as many years of school attendance. That there are sometimes children of the more ignorant classes, whose native power enables them to outstrip all competition, both at school and in the race of life, would not induce a single sensible parent to forego the advantages of such culture in the case of his own child.

This home education is the only secure foundation for the education of the schools. If it be wanting, it must in some way and as far as possible be supplied after the usual course of scholastic instruction is begun. To any one who has not had his attention drawn to this matter, or who has not had opportunity for obser-

vation, it would seem incredible how little the great masses of children in the lowest grades of the schools know of the things most nearly related to them, and how wretchedly meager is the vocabulary of their language. I speak, of course, of the large number whose fathers leave their homes at an early hour of the morning to pursue their daily labors, and whose mothers are hurried from morn till night in the duties of the household. I speak of the thousands, even in our own city, whose condition is still worse—the children of the ignorant, the dissipated, and the improvident. How often are such children totally ignorant in regard to the commonest things—things necessary to the understanding of the very first lessons of the schools.

It is mostly in consequence of this ignorance of what authors and teachers generally take for granted, as being well known to the child, that so much labor and endless repetitions often produce only ludicrous results. I have known pupils in Cincinnati, for instance, who could readily recite an entire text-book in Geography, and who could not tell which way the Ohio river flows, and who would point to the west for the south and east, and call a triangle a square. I have known whole classes of students ready to pass from the study of the lower branches, who, when they said that the giraffe is seventeen feet high, would point for comparison to objects as being seventeen feet high, which were not nine, or to others which were thirty or more. Classes almost ready to enter the High School have united in the opinion that it would take four or five squares, in the central part of the city, to make an acre of ground.* One pupil in another class, who had acquitted himself with high honor at the annual examination, gravely told me that it would take about eleven hundred such squares to make an acre. The question was suggested by a paragraph in the text-book, which informed the student that the largest of the Egyptian pyramids covers about eleven acres of ground. The definitions which they had learned were of little service. All of the pupils above alluded to could readily repeat the table of land or square measure, and had been exercised upon it for days together, in making reductions from one denomination to another, in integers, and in common and decimal fractions. How little children often know of the words which they define, is again exhibited in the boy who, when he had defined "infirmity", illustrated its meaning, at my request, by saying, "My father and another man are in partnership—

* These squares are of uniform size, and contain each a little less than four acres.

that is an infirmity." These are not exceptional cases. In the examination of schools, where the examiner steps but little out of the usual routine, such instances are common; and they show sad imperfection somewhere, it may be in some cases in the natural capacity of pupils, for which we are in no wise responsible; if, however, it be the work of the schools, it is the part of wisdom to ascertain its causes and address ourselves to the proper remedy. I would respectfully submit whether, in most of cases, it be not on account of the want of the early and home culture of which I have spoken. But of that we have no control, it may be said, and therefore the remedy is beyond our power. In some degree this may be true, for no school culture can entirely supply the want of home instruction and training. Are we, however, blameless if, in the first years of the child's attendance at school, we totally ignore the nature and extent of the work which has already been done for him. If he lack a common knowledge of the things which have surrounded him from his infancy; if his observing faculties have never been quickened into life, and his mind be sluggish for want of due exercise; if, through the want of intellectual activity on the part of those who surround him, he scarcely understand the language of the judicious and practiced teacher; if, in a word, his parents have failed to bring him forward to the starting-point of school education, shall we, nevertheless, begin there, thus beginning and ending with the *unknown;* or shall we first find what is known and proceed thence to the unknown, according to the method which the kind and wise father and mother take with the children at their knees.

As we commence, so ought we to continue, aiming to cultivate the intelligence of the child as he advances in his reading, writing, and arithmetic,—branches of study which, though valuable aids to intelligence, may be learned, and yet leave the learner an ignoramus in the things which it most concerns him to know. Reading itself is likely to be of value only when the knowledge of the reader is but little below the level of what he reads.

Esteeming Object Lessons, as we do, to be among the best of educational means, it is to be regretted that we can not report better results in the attempt to introduce them into our schools. But it is encouraging to be able to say that their value is thoroughly appreciated by teachers, and that, with more or less success, they have been carried out as prescribed.—A. J. RICKOFF, *in Report of Cleveland Schools.*

Editorial Department.

— We regret that we are not able to give fuller reports of the late meet- of the several national associations, but the large amount of space de- l to the Ohio associations in our last issue, makes it important that some- ; like our usual variety of matter be presented this month. We give most ə to the National Educational Association because it has a more national ːsentation and character, and hence its proceedings are of more general est and importance. When the wide extent of the country and the con- ənt expenses incurred in attending the meetings of these associations are dered, it is surprising that they are so well sustained. Their continuance s to be assured, and the duty of the future is to improve their character. should present the most advanced opinions and the ripest experience of ountry.

— We confess that we are somewhat surprised at the discussion on per- ıges of school attendance in the Ohio Superintendents' Association, re- d in our last issue. There were many good points made, but either the ːsive heat or the attractive surroundings confused men who are usually clear-headed. There ought to be no more difficulty in understanding a hly or weekly enrollment, than there is in understanding a yearly or term lment. The yearly enrollment of a school is the number of different s in attendance more or less in the year; the term enrollment is the num- f different pupils in attendance more or less in the term; the monthly en- ent is the number of different pupils in attendance more or less in the h; and the weekly enrollment is the number of different pupils in attend- more or less in the week. The average monthly enrollment for a year is l by dividing the sum of the several monthly enrollments by the number onths, and the average weekly enrollment is found by dividing the sum of ɜveral weekly enrollments by the number of weeks. Neither the striking or the re-entry of names is required. From a school register so kept as ow the daily attendance of the different pupils, it is easy to make out the lment for the year, for each term, for each month, or for each week. All ıs necessary is to count the number of different pupils in attendance more ss in each period of time. When reports are made monthly, as is done ɔst of our cities, it is a simple matter to compute the percentage of at- ınce on the basis of the monthly enrollment. Only two facts are needed, 1. The number of different pupils in school more or less in the month. ıe average number of pupils in daily attendance. No rule of member- is required. All that is necessary is, that the pupil's actual attendance curately marked in the daily register. For all practical purposes, we only percentages of attendance based on the monthly and the yearly enroll- of pupils.

—— We lately announced the appointment of a committee by the Board of Overseers of Harvard University, to consider the propriety of the co-education of the sexes in that institution. A report favoring co-education was recently submitted to the committee by the chairman, Mr. James Freeman Clarke, but the majority were not prepared to accept it. In view of the fact that Mr. Clarke's official term as a member of the board was soon to expire, the committee agreed to the printing of his report, and it has appeared in the *Christian Union*. It opens with the statement that the burden of proof rests with those who are opposed to the admission of women, inasmuch as the friends of Harvard have daughters as well as sons to be educated, and the university has all the material and appliances required to give these daughters a better education than they can receive elsewhere. If there be no good reason why young women should *not* be admitted to Harvard, its doors should be opened to them. Their admission will cost much less than the establishment of a separate university for them, and besides the elective system adopted at Harvard requires a large number of students. Since the university is situated in a large town, the young women could find board in private families, and no boarding-houses would be required. Mr. Clarke next considers the objections to co-education, following closely the report of President White, of Cornell University. He cites the experience of high schools, academies, and normal schools, where co-education has long been tried, and also the experience of the colleges which have adopted the plan. All this experience shows that co-education has been a satisfactory success. He concludes that "*all* the serious objections to the system are urged by those who have had no personal experience of its workings; and that *all* of these objections are given up as without foundation by those who know the system by actual experience." The report is not a strong one, since there is no attempt at a careful examination of the experience cited, to ascertain just what it does show. The report is valuable as an indication of the drift of public sentiment.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The twelfth annual meeting of this Association, held in Boston the 6th, 7th, and 8th days of August last, has received the general commendation of the press, and, we believe, of those who were present. The attendance was lessened by the refusal of all the through railroad lines, except the Grand Trunk, and of all the roads leading out of Boston, to make any reduction in fare. This unexpected action of the Boston roads was decided upon at a meeting of the superintendents. Notwithstanding the illiberal policy of the railroads, the attendance was good—some five hundred or more—and the different sections of the country were better represented, we think, than they were at the previous meetings in St. Louis and Cleveland. Nearly all the States, including California, were represented. Ohio sent a larger delegation than any other State, Massachusetts excepted.

The forenoons and evenings were occupied by the General Association, and the afternoons by the four Departments. The topics considered were of practical interest and importance, and the exercises were characterized by remarkable earnestness. The spirit of the meeting was excellent. The marked success of the several Departments contributed largely to the success of the meeting. The interest in each was admirably sustained, a result chiefly due to the excellent manner in which the presidents of the Departments -Miss Lathrop and Messrs. Rounds, Hancock, and Wallace—discharged their duties.

The most serious defect in the General Association was the length of the papers, which, with two exceptions, considerably exceeded the allotted limits. This prevented a thorough discussion of two of the most important topics considered. It may be that the only remedy for this defect, observable in all the meetings of the Association, is to assign but one paper to each session.

We give below a brief report of the proceedings, condensed largely from the reports in the Boston papers:

General Association.

The Association met in the beautiful hall of the Girls' High School, Tuesday, Aug. 6th, at 10 A.M., the President, E. E. White, of Ohio, in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Miner, of Boston, after which Mayor Gaston made a brief but happy address of welcome on behalf of the city. Mayor Gaston was followed by Rev. Dr. R. C. Waterson, who, on behalf of the School Committee of Boston, cordially welcomed the Association to the city and to the Old Bay State, which, from their earliest history, had been the friends of education. He congratulated the teachers of the country on the deep and general interest now taken in public schools and the wonderful progress that has already been made. As an illustration of this progress, he stated that, one hundred and fifty years ago, girls were first admitted to the public schools of Boston to fill the seats of the boys in summer time. Now the National Educational Association, with scores of women in full membership, assembles in this magnificent building erected solely for the higher education of girls. Rev. Dr. Waterson was followed by Dr. F. H. Underwood, who made a humorous allusion to the idea commonly held by residents of other places, that the Boston man considers himself finished in every particular and is absorbed in the contemplation of his perfections. He assured the audience that, whatever may have been true, this state of things no longer exists. The young President of Harvard University has inaugurated reforms, and the movement has reached the high schools and the other schools of Boston. Those intrusted with the management of the public schools, were conscious that perfection has not yet been reached, and are seeking light from every source. The President of the Association responded. He gave to Massachusetts the great honor of establishing the first system of free public schools, and spoke in words of high eulogy of what the State had done for the cause of education. On behalf of the Association he thanked the Mayor of the city and the representatives of the School Committee for their cordial welcome.

After the appointment of assistant secretaries and treasurers, the President announced that he should not occupy the time of the Association with a formal

address. He stated that those entrusted with the preparation of the programme of exercises had endeavored to bring topics of interest to all classes of teachers and school officers before the General Association, and to leave to the Departments the consideration of those subjects which more specially interest those for whose benefit the Departments were organized. Attention was called to five of the live educational questions of the day ,included in the programme of the General Association, viz: How can education be made universal? How can the teachers of the country be best provided with the means of professional training? How can the qualifications of teachers be best determined? How can the higher education of women be best provided for? How can the needed moral influence of public education be secured? To the consideration of these important questions, he invited the attention of the Association. A letter just received from President White, of Cornell University, stated that he would not be able to be present, but the topic of "Co-education" would, if possible, be presented by some other person. In conclusion, he thanked the Association for the honor of presiding over its deliberations.

The Association reassembled at eight o'clock in the Lowell Institute. Rev. Dr. A. D. Mayo, of Cincinnati, gave a very able lecture on "Methods of Moral Instruction in Public Schools." He said that we have fallen on the era of methods in public instruction, and we now approach the era of methods in moral culture. We must first rid ourselves of a huge drift of error in regard to the province of our public schools. Their purpose is to make neither profound scholars nor saints, but to make good American citizens—such men and women as will preserve and ennoble the republic. The morality to be inculcated in these schools is that of the Christian religion. We can not teach a Chinese or heathen morality, nor can we teach the vague standards of materialism. Every method presupposes a living soul at the centre of operation, without which it is a mere machine, and hence the first condition in teaching morality is a *teacher whose life is the embodiment of such morality.* No one is a fit teacher of children who does not maintain a high and positive Christian standard of morals. The rage for intellectual culture is becoming the Moloch of American schools. The teaching of children is now almost entirely in the hands of young women, and their intellectual qualifications are subjected to constant scrutiny and supervision. They are compelled to run a gauntlet worse than their grandmothers who were captured by the Indians. Their moral fitness is vastly more important. The new methods of teaching open a way for the most successful moral instruction, but they are powerless in the hands of a teacher who has no moral perception. The methods of object and oral instruction are still on trial. Unless we place in our school-rooms a class of teachers filled with a high moral purpose, the children will be dragged down to common earth-worms. Our young women teachers, especially, need high moral ideas. Tha common school is the place where the child should be taught the great lessons of morality in public life, for morality and patriotism are inseparable in a country like ours. Our teachers are too often so highly wrought in æsthetic and literary culture that they go into our schools with an utter ignorance and almost an utter contempt for our common American life; very charming, no doubt, as ornaments of wealthy homes, but utterly unfit to

nould our boys into well-rounded American citizens. The Bible is the great ext-book of morality, and no American citizen has the right to object to its ıse in the public schools as a means of moral instruction. The imperative ıeed of our schools to day is some method of common sense moral supervision. There are dangers connected with the co-education of the sexes in the common schools that can not be overlooked, and there is imperative need of in:reasing vigilance. He urged the adoption of some plan that would give our ıchools the benefit of the moral supervison of Christian women. In the hands of his hearers he would leave the care of this tree of knowledge, whose leaves ıhould be for the healing of the nation.

The discussion was opened by Dr. J. M. Gregory, of the Illinois Industrial University, who said that Dr. Mayo had exhausted the subject, and he could only retouch the picture. Our schools are designed not only to educate the children intellectually, but morally, and the expenditure for their support can not be justified if we take away that which causes the children to grow up into good citizens. We can not send a child's intellect to school and keep his moral nature at home. The highest intellectual culture can not be attained unless there is a moral nature which will furnish the necessary incentives. The safety of the republic and of humanity itself depends upon moral instruction in our public schools. The grand purpose of the teacher is to form *character*.

Hon, Joseph White, Secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts, said that Dr. Mayo has given us to-night the truth in eloquent words and in a more eloquent spirit. With such sentiments inspiring our teachers, the republic is safe. Three years since a great audience applauded the sentiment, "The school for intellectual education, and the church for moral education"—a heresy whose adoption would be fatal to the public school system. His creed was a brief one, and not of his own originating, but derived from the words of one of the best friends of education, now gone to his final rest, Josiah Quincy, who said, "There can be no freedom without morality, no morality without religion, and no religion without the Bible"—and so give us and our children the Bible.

The Association convened Wednesday morning at nine o'clock in the hall of the Girls' High School. Prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Wallace, President of Monmouth College, Ill.

After the appointment of committees on places for teachers and resolutions and the transaction of other business, the President called upon Dr. J. W. Hoyt, of Wisconsin, chairman of the permanent committee on "The National University", to make a brief report of progress. Dr. Hoyt stated that the idea of founding a national university had been in the minds of many of the leading statesmen and educators of the country for many years, and gave the history of the action of the National Education Association on the subject. With a view of bringing the subject in a practical form before the country, the committee appointed at St. Louis prepared a bill, which was submitted to many persons for criticism and suggestion. The bill was then carefully revised, and on the 28th of May last it was introduced in both houses of Congress by the committees on Education and Labor. Dr. Hoyt explained, at

considerable length, the provisions of the bill, which, he thought guarded the institution against all political, partisan or sectarian management. He stated that the bill had been favorably received in Congress, and that it had been approved by nearly all of the higher institutions of the country. The prospects of its early passage were encouraging.

Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, Principal of the First State Normal School of Minnesota, read a paper on "The System of Normal Training Schools best adapted to the Wants of Our People." He presented at length the necessity of the normal training of teachers, and traced the history of the establishment and growth of normal schools in this country, from the opening of the first at Lexington, Mass., in July, 1859, to the present time. He paid high compliments to Father Pierce, Horace Mann, and Nicholas Tillinghast, and other pioneers in the normal cause. In conclusion, he touched briefly upon the specific subject which he was expected to present, recommending that every university or college should have a professor of teaching, that every State should support one or more normal schools of a high grade, an elementary normal school in each county, and a system of normal teachers' institutes.

After a few songs by the Jubilee Singers, from Fisk University, Tenn., who were warmly applauded, Prof. D. B. Hagar, of Salem, Mass., opened the discussion of the paper. He stated that the normal schools of Massachusetts embrace a course designed to prepare teachers for high schools, and also one to prepare teachers for lower schools. He was not in favor of establishing normal schools of a lower grade, but believed strongly in the value of teachers' institutes.

President N. T. Lupton, of the University of Alabama, said that a normal department has been organized in that institution, and briefly described the course of instruction.

Hon. John Eaton, Jr., National Commissioner of Education, read an interesting and able paper on "The Educational Lessons of Statistics." These lessons were drawn from the early records, but chiefly from the census of 1870. We can make no abstract that will do justice to this paper.

Hon. B. G. Northrop, Secretary of the State Board of Education of Connecticut, stated that the statistics of illiteracy in this country were distorted and improperly used. No less a man than Hepworth Dixon, of England, had pointed him to these statistics as proof of the failure of the school system in the United States. He replied that in the Northern States, at least, this illiteracy was imported illiteracy, and largely from the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

The Association met in the evening at the Lowell Institute. Hon. J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, chairman of the committee on Nominations, reported the following officers:

President—B. G. Northrop, Connecticut.

Vice Presidents—Newton Bateman, Illinois; George P. Beard, Missouri; Abner J. Phipps, Massachusetts; Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania; James H. Binford, Virginia; John Swett, California; N. T. Lupton, Alabama; A. P. Stone, Maine; N. A. Calkins, New York; Miss D. A. Lathrop, Ohio; W. N. Hailman, Kentucky; N. P. Gates, Arkansas.

Secretary—S. H. White, Illinois.

Treasurer—John Hancock, Ohio.

Counselors—E. E. White, Ohio, and John Eaton, Jr., at large; Warren Johnson, Maine; Judah Dana, Vermont; D. Crosby, New Hampshire; E. A. Hubbard, Massachusetts; J. C. Greenough, Rhode Island; Mrs. M. A. Stone, Connecticut; J. H. Hoose, New York; Charles H. Verrill, Pennsylvania; M. A. Newell, Maryland; J. O. Wilson, District of Columbia; A. E. Dolbear, West Virginia; M. Webster, Virginia; H. B. Blake, North Carolina; W. H. Baker, Georgia; Joseph Hodgson, Alabama; Miss H. E. Hasslock, Tennessee; W. T. Harris, Missouri; Mrs. A S. Kissell, Iowa; Miss E. D. Copley, Kansas; Geo. Howland, Illinois; C. R. Stuntz, Ohio; J. Newby, Indiana; E. Olney, Michigan; J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin; H. B. Wilson, Minnesota.

The report was adopted, and the officers named elected.

Hon. Newton Bateman, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, read an able and elaborate paper on "Compulsory School Attendance." He said that were compulsory attendance to be made a matter of legislation he should have his bill entitled "An act to secure the educational rights of children", rather than "An act to compel the attendance of children at school." He proceeded to treat his theme under two heads, offering two reasons for such legislation, viz., because it is within the legitimate province of a republican goverment; and because it is necessary and expedient. He showed by numerous arguments and examples that the principle of compulsion is the basis of all laws as well as of government itself. Compulsion is the bed-rock on which every human goverment rests down. Bayonets and bomb-shells are the final adjudicators. Without this investiture of force, and the right to appeal to it in emergencies, every organized government would go to pieces. In every case in the last resort it meets the culprit with clenched fist and not with moral precept. In the matter in question, the compulsion of attendance would be infinitely less repugnant than countless laws which have been swallowed and digested. He concluded by showing that the measure he advocated was not only just, but expedient, and argued its necessity in strong and unmistakable language.

The hour being late when Mr. Bateman closed, there was no further discussion of the subject.

Thursday morning's session was opened with prayer by Rev. David Crosby, of Nashua, N. H. A communication was read from the German American Teachers' Association requesting permission to coöperate with the National Educational Association, and offering to present the plans and methods of some German educators at the next annual meeting. The communication was referred to the Board of Directors, and the delegates from the German Association present were invited to participate in the proceedings.

Hon. John Swett, Deputy Superintendent of the Schools of San Francisco, Cal., read a spicy and suggestive paper on the "The Examination of Teachers." He took strong grounds against the New England system of examining and employing teachers as vexatious and useless, and gave an amusing account of his early experience as a teacher both in New England and California. He was happy to say that this ill-advised system had been abolished in

California, and that the office of teacher had risen to the dignity of a profession. The remedy for the evils of the New England system was the organization of State and County Boards of Examiners, composed exclusively of professional teachers; the issuing of a graded series of certificates from life certificates down to limited certificates for temporary teachers; the adoption of written examinations, the percentages to be indorsed on the certificates; a legal recognition by each State of the professional certificates given on actual examinations by legal boards in every other State, and of the normal-school diplomas issued in other States; and a combined effort to lengthen the terms of school officers.

The paper elicited a spirited and interesting discussion, which was participated in by Prof. S. S. Greene and Prof. M. Lyons, of Rhode Island: Secretary Northrop, of Connecticut; Dr. Levison, of New York; Dr. F. Taylor, of Pennsylvania; Supt. Abernethy, of Iowa; John Hancock, of Ohio; Prof. Stevens, of West Virginia; President Chadbourne, of Williams College, Mass.; Mr. A. Bronson Alcott, of Massachusetts; Mr. J. Dana, of Vermont; and Supt. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania.

On motion of Mr. Beard, of Missouri, the subject was referred to a committee, with Hon. John Swett as chairman, to report at the next meeting. Hon. J. L. Pickard, of Illinois, and Hon. Joseph White, of Massachusetts, were appointed the other members of the committee.

The following resolution, offered by W. E. Crosby, of Iowa, was referred to the above committee:

Resolved, That this association give its influence to the securing of a common recognition throughout the Union of normal school diplomas and state certificates as evidences of qualifications actually possessed by higher classes of teachers, principals, superintendents of the states, counties, and cities; provided that an equal and impartial basis of training and scholarship can be generally adopted.

Mr. Walter Smith, State Director of Art Education in Massachusetts, read an excellent paper on "Drawing in Public Schools." He advocated the teaching of drawing as a relief to the mental faculties of children, often over-strained by the ordinary school routine, and, to this end, the first-lessons should exercise the eyes and fingers in a manner least likely to tax the mind. What is needed is a system of drawing simple enough to be taught by all teachers and learned by all pupils. Drawing should be taught by the regular teachers, for the employment of a special teacher of drawing caused the pupils to believe that it was a very difficult study. Many children, not skillful in drawing lines, are very quick in drawing conclusions. The first lessons in drawing should be each a stepping-stone to the next. In primary and grammar schools drawing should be taught as a language, the speech of the eye, while in the high schools it may be taught as an art. A course of instruction for the different grades of pupils was sketched and printed outlines were distributed. Mr. Smith believed that art education could be made more successful in this country than in any other. The paper was very acceptable to the audience, and was frequently applauded.

Mr. Northrop, of Connecticut, congratulated Massachusetts on being the

rst State to adopt by legislation a system of art education for the public chools.

At 4½ o'clock, Thursday afternoon, the General Association convened for he closing exercises. The President introduced Mr. Mori, the Japanese min- ister to this country, who was received with hearty applause.

Mr. Mori said that he was happy to say a few words repecting the educa- tional movement in Japan. All had heard of the social and political revolu- tion in that country. Until recently education was considered of little impor- tance, except for the officials. A bureau of education has been established and several foreign teachers, mostly Americans, have been employed. The language of Japan was too poor—too *short*—to use for higher steps. Five or six hundred persons have been sent abroad to study, and some have returned with the belief that without education at home their civilization can not be im- proved. This not being fully appreciated, the embassy recently here was sent out. It was very difficult to send these high officials abroad, and during their absence very little is doing in Japan. The schools of that country are mainly for the high officials, but the members of the embassy were convinced of the necessity of education for all, both male and female. The commissioner of education, a member of the embassy, had told the speaker that he had become convinced of the necessity of teaching the English language. The mayor of Yeddo, now in Boston, told him he was very anxious to have the million of peo- ple in his city lifted up as much as possible; that the teaching of English is a tep toward it. His belief was, that education must be undertaken first in reference to railroads and other accompaniments of an advanced civilization. Many schools for both sexes have been established in Japan, but owing to the want of teachers they are unable to do as much as they would like to do. They re obliged to take the foreigners residing there, tradesmen, and even sailors, nd they do not make a good impression on the Japanese. He had advised ie establishment of a good number of normal schools to train teachers. He oped to receive suggestions in the matter from prominent educators in this ountry. If Japan fails in this, all Asia will lose, as Japan is the gate to Asia. e predicted that when public schools are generally established in Japan, the nglish language will become the prevailing language of the country, and ie native language would in time only be preserved as a curiosity.

The President thanked Mr. Mori for the honor conferred on the Association y his presence, and assured him of the deep interest felt by the educators of is country in the great educational movement in Japan.

William Gaston, the mayor of Boston, Rev. R. C. Waterson, D.D., Dr. rancis H. Underwood, A. Bronson Alcott, Henry Barnard, Mr. Mori, the Jap- nese Minister, and Edward Shippen, of Philadelphia, were chosen honorary iembers.

Resolutions were adopted approving of the bill now pending in Congress, or the appropriation of the proceeds of the sales of public lands to educa- onal purposes; congratulating the country on the great usefulness of the ational Bureau of Education, and recommending to Congress the furnishing f increased facilities for the publication of circulars of information and the sue of a much larger edition of the annual reports for distribution among

the teachers and school officers of the country; recommending to boards of education and teachers the adoption of measures looking to the introduction of art instruction into all schools; recommending the introduction of instruction in the elements of physical science; and urging the establishment of normal schools, teachers' institutes, and other instrumentalities for the special preparation of teachers. The usual complimentary resolutions were also passed.

The President made a brief closing address, and then introduced Hon. R. G. Northrop, the president elect, who accepted the position in a few well-chosen words. He announced that the next meeting of the Association would be held in Elmira, N. Y. After singing the doxology, the Association adjourned.

Elementary Department.

The first session opened at 2½ o'clock, Tuesday, Aug. 6th. The exercises were introduced by a few appropriate and happy remarks by the President, Miss D. A. Lathrop, of Cincinnati.

N. A. Calkins, Assistant Superintendent of Schools of New York City, read an able paper on "Object Teaching." He contrasted the methods of instruction in the kindergarten school with the system of the ordinary primary schools, and urged that primary instruction should be in harmony with the nature of the child. The true office of object teaching is to prepare for the study of text-books, by observation and oral instruction. The proper methods of object teaching were briefly stated.

The discussion on the paper was opened by Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C., who thought that a thorough reform is needed in our system of primary instruction, and that object teaching should beoome a principle intead of a conviction as at present. He was convinced that we are radically wrong in our whole system of primary instruction, in both our school-rooms, our play-rooms, and our books. The discussion was continued by A. Bronson Alcott, of Concord, Mass., who expressed himself in full sympathy with the advanced educational movements of the day, and Mr. Baker, of Troy, N. Y.

Prof. M. A. Newell, Principal of the State Normal School of Baltimore, Md., read a paper on "English Grammar in Elementary Schools." He said that among modern writers of distinction not one in a hundred ever studied English grammar as such. We learn to sing by singing, and to draw by drawing, and in the same way we must be taught to speak and write correctly by speaking and writing. He thought that text-books in grammar should be abolished in all grades below the high school.

Mr. W. C. Crosby, Superintendent of Schools of Davenport, Iowa, who opened the discussion, believed that theory and practice must go hand in hand. He thought that Prof. Newell would have many disciples, but very few followers. The subject was discussed by other speakers, after which the session closed.

Wednesday's session was opened by a paper on "The adaptation of Froebel's Educational Ideas to American Institutions", by W. N. Hailman, Editor of the Schul Zeitung, Louisville, Ky. He believed that the application of elementary methods should differ widely in different countries, and that what in

ıe might prove beneficial, in another would turn out the reverse. Only such ıreign methods should be adopted as could be used with advantage. He ıought that the United States offered the greatest field for the system of edu- ıtion invented by Froebel. He proposed the appointment of a committee of ne-hearted, clear-headed people from all parts of the land to examine this ystem, and consider what is needed to adapt it to the wants of our schools, nd report at the next meeting of the department. In closing he offered a esolution to that effect, which was adopted, and a committee of seven ap- ointed to carry out its provisions.

Dr. Adolph Douai, of Newark, N. J., spoke in commendation of the kinder- arten system. Miss Elizabeth Peabody, of Boston, thought Froebel's pecu- arity to be, that he prepares the child to learn. She gave an interesting ccount of the gradual development of a child's perception, illustrating the ıethod by means of some of the appliances used in the system. By these ıethods children gain accuracy of perception before they are seven years old, nd also the development of many of the best faculties. Miss Peabody was armly applauded for her instructive remarks. Several other persons also estified to the great efficiency of the kindergarten system.

After a short recess, Mr. Ambrose P. Kelsey, Principal of the High School ı Clinton, N. Y., read a paper on "School Architecture and Furniture", speak- ıg principally of the school-buildings of small towns. He treated of their ze, internal arrangements, external appearance, location, grounds, etc., and ave many excellent suggestions respecting the heating, ventilation, and other ccessories of the school room.

On Thursday afternoon, Mr. C. O. Thompson, Principal of Worcester Free ıstitute of Industrial Science, read a paper on "Physical Science in Elemen- ry Schools." He advocated the teaching of the elements of the physical ciences in common schools, giving the preference to natural history. He ould make room for such instruction by abolishing the study of grammar, ıd substituting therefor the teaching of language orally.

The subject was discussed by I. N. Carlton, Principal of the State Normal chool of Connecticut, and C. M. Woodward, Dean of the Polytechnic De- ırtment of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

A paper by Dr. F. H. Underwood, of Boston, on "English Literature in opular Education" was next read. He thought that the constant reading nd re-reading of books, intended for elocutionary exercises, was a great error. iterary hash is the proper term for these compilations. The course of read- ıg in our schools should be so reformed and revised as to give pupils a course f instruction in English literature, thorough but not necessarily exhaustive. o field would be more certain to yield abundant fruits.

The following officers were elected: *President*—N. A. Calkins, New York; *ice President*—Miss H. N. Morris, New York; *Secretary*—Miss Augusta M. lanly, Cincinnati.

Normal Department.

The first session opened on Tuesday afternoon at 2½ o'clock. The Presi- ent, C. C. Rounds, of Maine, made a brief and appropriate address.

Mr. J. C. Greenough, Principal of the State Normal School of Rhode Island, read a paper on "What is the Proper Work of the Normal School?" He held that the object of the normal school is to prepare teachers for schools of higher grade and also for elementary schools. The most important element in normal training is a knowledge of the laws of mental activity and development. He sketched the course of instruction in elementary and scientific branches, and indicated the methods of teaching to be employed in normal schools.

The paper was discussed by A. G. Boyden, of the Bridgewater Normal School, Mass., and Dr. M. R. Leverson, of New York.

Gen. S. C. Armstrong, of the Hampton Normal Institute, Va., read a paper on "Normal Work among the Freedmen." He urged that the great demand for colored teachers in the South should be met by normal schools supported by the charity of the North. He described the normal training needed.

Miss Anna C. Brackett, of New York, recently of St. Louis, read a paper on "The American Normal School", which, she urged, should give to its pupils the garnered treasure of the past, and send them forth with the ability to dispense it. It should also give its pupils, though sparingly, special methods and rules for doing this work. There should be a uniform system of normal training, so far as principles are concerned, and women should acquire a practical knowledge of life by contact with the world as a preparation to teach boys.

The exercises of Wednesday afternoon were opened by a discussion of the papers by Mr. Greenough and Miss Brackett. Mr. Williams, of Vermont, believed that the true work of the normal school was to teach methods, not subjects. No scholar should be admitted to a normal school until he has mastered the branches of study he is expected to teach. George P. Beard, of Missouri, said that subjects and methods should be taught together, and that the recitation should be topical in form. E. H. Cook, of Pennsylvania, thought that the principles of education, its science, should be taught as well as methods. The individual power of the teacher is to be developed. Charles H. Verrill, of Pennsylvania, said that normal pupils should study every subject under the idea of learning how to teach it. C. F. R. Bellows, of Michigan, did not believe that subjects and methods could be separated in normal schools. They should be united, but in the latter part of the course subjects should be made subordinate to methods.

Hon. T. W. Harvey, State Commissioner of Common Schools of Ohio, read an able paper on "Professional Training in Normal Schools." He urged that the course of training in normal schools should be mainly adapted to the wants of those who intend to make teaching a life profession, and that the preparation of temporary teachers should be left to normal institutes, state and county, and to other institutions. Except in special branches, the course of training in normal schools should be purely professional. This will permit a review of the branches, with a view to illustrate methods, but academic instruction as such should not be given. He thought that the wisdom of establishing expensive normal schools to give temporary teachers academic instruction, thus duplicating the work of high schools and academies, may well be doubted.

The paper was discussed by J. H. Hoose, of New York, George P. Beard, of Missouri, Miss Anna C. Brackett, of New York, Mr. Blake, of North Caro-

lina, Wm. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, and A. Bronson Alcott, of Massachusetts. Mr. Beard urged that normal institutes must be relied upon for the professional instruction of the great body of teachers. Mr. Wickersham thought that, for many years, there would be two clases of teachers, permanent and temporary, making necessary two classes of normal schools. In one class chiefly professional work should be done; in the other, there must be academic instruction. Mr. Phelps thought that academic and professional instruction must be combined in the normal schools of the West, and that elementary normal schools—localized institutions—are needed, well as normal schools of a high grade.

The first exercise on Thursday afternoon was the reading of a paper on "The Relation between Matter and Method in Normal Instruction", by Geo. P. Beard, Principal State Normal School, Warrensburg, Mo. He said that the teacher must have a knowledge of the subject matter of instruction as well as of methods, and, hence, matter and method must be combined in normal schools. Method must be taught in connection with matter. The theory that pupils should come to normal schools with a good education, merely to receive professional training, lacks practicability. Normal schools should be more than academies; they should impart a knowledge of the principles and methods of teaching.

Mr. Williams, of Vermont, who opened the discussion, did not see how normal schools were to reach a professional basis by continuing the practice of academic teaching. Mr. Verrill, of Pennsylvania, said that if only professional work was done in normal schools, many of them would have very few pupils. Mr. Greenough, of Rhode Island, thought that the plan of giving professional instruction only did not preclude the attaiment of academic knowledge, for in learning how to teach a subject, a pupil's knowledge of it would be increased

Miss J. H. Stickney, Principal of the Boston Training School, spoke on "Practice Schools—Their Uses and Their Relation to Normal Training." She said that practice should have at least one-third of the attention of the normal pupil. Abstract professional instruction in methods is not enough. Practice schools will enable teachers to acquire much which they can get in no other way. She doubted the wisdom of making the normal class a class for practice. When children are so numerous, she did not see why adults should make believe they are children. As classes for practice, they are better than nothing, and but little better. Practice schools should be graded, and be otherwise exactly like other schools. The normal pupils should go into these schools, and teach under the supervision of the regular teacher. They should first observe, and afterward teach. The address was listened to with the closest attention and with general approval.

The following are the officers elected: *President*—A. G. Boyden, Massachusetts; *Vice President*—J. Estabrook, Michigan; *Secretary*—M. A. Newell, Maryland.

Department of Superintendence.

This Department held its first session Tuesday afternoon, the President, John Hancock, of Cincinnati, in the chair.

Rev. Henry F. Harrington, Superintendent of Schools of New Bedford, Mass., read an elaborate paper on "The Extent, Methods, and Value of Supervision in a System of Schools." He said that wherever schools are defective and poor, the cause, in almost every case, is a want of the right kind of supervision. The value of the supervision of a single mind is no more important in business enterprises than in education. It is impossible for local school committees to supervise schools properly, because they rarely, if ever, are fitted for the work by nature or training, and have not the time which they are willing, gratuitously, to give to the work. He advocated a system of supervision comprising a state superintendent, next county superintendents, then town and city school committees or directors, towns and cities being left free to appoint superintendents. He strongly urged the creation of the office of county superintendent, which twenty States had done, and had no excuse to offer for Massachusetts's neglect of this agency. The paper was heartily applauded.

The discussion was opened by Supt. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, who spoke of the advantages of the system of supervision in St. Louis. He was followed by Supt. J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, Supt. J. L. Pickard, of Chicago, Secretary Joseph White, of Massachusetts, and others—all of whom urged the value of supervision. Mr. White did not believe that county supervision would work well in Massachusetts. The entire civil system of the State is based on the *town*, and not on the county.

On Wednesday afternoon, W. T. Harris, Superintendent of the Schools of St. Louis, read an able paper on "The Early Withdrawal of Pupils from School—Its Causes and Remedies." He said that one of the principal causes of early withdrawal of pupils from school is neglect of early education, consequently he would have the age at which scholars were admitted to school reduced to four years. A second reason he found to be defective discipline and want of skill on the part of the teacher. A third, and perhaps the most fruitful cause, was to be found in defective grading. The result of this mistake was to keep part of the members of a class strained to the utmost, in order to maintain a proper standard, while others were not exercised to the extent required. He would do away with the yearly examination for promotion, believing a period of six weeks or two months sufficient to intervene between such tests.

The discussion was opened by A. P. Stone, Principal of the Portland High School, Me., who was followed by Supt. John Hancock, of Cincinnati, Supt. W. E. Crosby, of Davenport, Iowa, Supt. E. A. Hubbard, of Springfield, Mass., and Supt. H. F. Harrington, of New Bedford, Mass.—all of whom dissented from one or both of the remedies recommended in the paper, viz: the admission of pupils at four years of age, and the frequent transfer of pupils. Mr. Seaver, of Iowa, and Rev. Mr. Stone, of Providence, supported Mr. Harris's views.

The exercises of Thursday afternoon were opened by the reading of an excellent paper on "Public Education in the South", by Hon. Joseph Hodgson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Alabama. He spoke of the condition of the South with respect to territory and capabilities, claiming that, for natural advantages and possibility of development, it was one of the most

ıvored regions of the earth. Unfortunately, however, the ignorance of the ɔmmon people there was general and lamentably great. The condition was ren worse among the whites than among the colored population, for the former ere actually growing more and more illiterate. Of the voters of that section pward of 1,120,000 were unable to read or write. He was favorable to the lea of compulsory education, believing that if the government has the right ı tax the people to educate the masses, it had an equal right to make those ıasses receive the benefits of the levy. But he declared that the South was ot in a condition to endure any great taxation for schools or any other purose, as the rate now was generally in that section twice as high as in the lder States. He hoped that the General Congress might see fit to extend a elping hand to these people. This was the more to be desired, as the States dmitted to the Union after 1848 received gratuities of land for educational urposes far in excess of what the earlier members of the Union received.

At the conclusion of the paper, President Hancock called attention to the ery great importance of its statements. Commissioner Eaton and Supt. Vickersham strongly favored the granting of needed educational aid to the outhern States. Mr. Blake, of North Carolina, said that the paper expressed he exact condition and great need of the South. Mr. Hubbard, of Iowa, exressed similar views. Dr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, desired to see a chool system inaugurated in the South similar to the itinerant system of weden. President Hancock closed the discussion with a touching tribute to he educators of the South, who are laboring to establish public school systems.

W. T. Harris, Superintendent of the Schools of St. Louis, Mo., read the reort of the committee on "Percentages of School Attendance", which was dopted.

The following officers were elected: *President*—W. T. Harris, St. Louis; *Vice President*—J. W. Paige, of Maryland; *Secretary*—A. P. Marble, Worester, Mass.

Department of Higher Instruction.

The President, Dr. D. A. Wallace, of Monmouth College, Ill., read a paper n "College Degrees", in which he urged that honorary degrees should be ased upon attainments as well defined as other degrees. As a remedy for the vils of irregularity in the conditions on which degrees are bestowed, it was ıggested that each State should establish a senate of learned men to pass on ıe qualifications of candidates for degrees, the degree being bestowed by colges on the certificate of the senate.

President Eliot, of Harvard, saw practical difficulties in the plan proposed, nd suggested, as a temporary remedy, the adoption of the German system of dding the name of the college to the letters indicating the degree. The subct was further discussed by Dr. Gregory, of Illinois, Dr. Reed, of Missouri, rof. Stevens, of West Virginia, Pres. Baird, of Maryland, and Pres. Tappan nd Mr. Henkle, of Ohio.

The session of Wednesday afternoon was held in the lecture-room of the Initute of Technology. Prof. H. M. Tyler, of Knox College, Ill., read the reɔrt of the committee on "Greek and Latin Pronunciation." He recomended that the rules given in Goodwin's Greek Grammar should be sub-

stantially followed in the pronunciation of Greek. In Latin the ancient Roman pronunciation was recommended, Prof. Lane, of Harvard, being named as the best authority.

The report was briefly discussed. Pres. Baird, of Maryland, approved of the report. Prof. Harkness, of Rhode Island, and Prof. Crosby, of Massachusetts, strongly advocated the English pronunciation. Prof. Bartholomew disapproved of the "Continental" method, and favored the ancient pronunciation, as recommended in the report. Mr. Henkle had used the continental, but had gone back to the English; he thought the ancient method would save time.

Prof. E. C. Pickering, of the Institute of Technology, next gave a lecture on "Laboratory Methods of Teaching Physics." He said that he used the old method of lectures, illustrated by experiments, for preliminary instruction, after which each student studies the science practically by manipulating the apparatus, or whatever is used, under the direction of the professor. The lecturer illustrated this method in the presence of the audience.

Prof. Slater, of Harvard College, followed with a lecture on "The Method of Teaching Natural History."

On Thursday afternoon, Prof. F. A. March, of Lafayette College, Pa., read an able paper on "The Method of Teaching English in High Schools." We much regret that we have not space for such an abstract as will do justice to this very valuable paper.

The next exercise was a discussion of the bill now before Congress for the establishment of a National University. It was opened by Dr. J. W. Hoyt, of Wisconsin, who was followed by President Eliot, of Harvard, Secretary Northrop, of Connecticut, and Prof. Stebbins, of Massachusetts. The subject was referred to a committee consisting of President Eliot, Dr. Hoyt, and President Lupton, of Alabama, to report next year. Inasmuch as this measure is in the hands of a permanent committee appointed by the General Association, we question the propriety of this action by the Department of Higher Instruction.

The following are the officers elected: *President*—D. A. Wallace, of Illinois; *Vice President*—J. D. Runkle, of Massachusetts; *Secretary*—W. D. Henkle, of Ohio.

The Reception at Faneuil Hall.

A fine reception, tendered to the Association by the city government, took place on Thursday evening in Faneuil Hall. A splendid and superabundant collation was served at an early hour. The divine blessing was invoked by Pres. Chadbourne, of Williams College, and, after nearly an hour had been spent at the tables, Rev. Dr. Waterson called the assembly to order, and with a few remarks introduced Hon. A. H. Rice who spoke in behalf of the city of Boston. Speeches were also made by Hon. B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut, Hon. Joseph White, of Massachuselts, Pres. E. E. White, of Ohio, Hon. John Eaton, National Commissioner, Hon. J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, Hon. John Swett, of California, Hon. Joseph Hodgson, of Alabama, and Supt. W T. Harris, of St. Louis. The occasion was a fitting close to the exercises of the three previous days.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

We had the pleasure of attending the forty-third annual meeting of this association, held in Lewiston, Me., Aug. 13th, 14th, and 15th, 1872.

The opening session was held Tuesday evening, Aug. 13th. The exercises consisted of an address of welcome, by Hon. M. T. Ludden, and a happy response by the President, Abner J. Phipps, of Massachusetts. Hon. J. L. Pickard, of Chicago, Ill., gave a valuable address on "The Hinderances to making Teaching a Profession." It was full of good thoughts, well expressed.

The exercises on Wednesday consisted of an excellent paper on "Drawing in Our Public Schools" by Mr. Walter Smith, of Boston—the paper read before the National Association in Boston; an able paper on "Music in Schools", by J. Baxter Upham, M.D., chairman of the committee on Music of the Boston School Board (see the February number of this journal, for the greater part of this paper); a fine paper on "English Literature" by Dr. Francis H. Underwood, of Boston—the paper read at the Boston meeting; a lecture on "Industrial Education" by Rev. Dr. Bartol, of Boston; and an eloquent address in the evening on "The Influence of Education upon Labor" by Senator J. W. Patterson, of New Hampshire.

The exercises on Thursday consisted of the election of officers; resolutions of respect to the memory of deceased members, including Dr. Lowell Mason, William Seaver, and Rev. Charles Brooks; a valuable paper on "Public Instruction in Germany" by Nathaniel T. Allen, of West Newton, Mass.; a brief lecture on "Laboratory Method in Physics" by Prof. E. C. Pickering, of Boston; a paper on "The Criterion of Education" by E. E. White, of Ohio, and brief addresses by the retiring President, and the President elect, Rev. M. C. Stebbins, of the Springfield High School, Mass.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY.—We regret the error corrected in the following letter. Our statement was based on an article in one of our exchanges:

MIAMI UNIVERSITY, OXFORD, O., Aug. 19th, 1872.

E. E. WHITE, ESQ.—*Daar Sir:* Will you permit me to correct a statement made in the August number of the NATIONAL TEACHER, in reference to the new organization of Miami University? We have abandoned, it is true, the ordinary curriculum, and have adopted the so-called university system, which has been tried so long and with such good results in the University of Virginia. But neither at the University of Virginia nor at Miami has the system been carried so far as to discard the use of text-books and daily recitations.

In the original plan of the University of Virginia, the continental method of giv- instruction exclusively by lectures was made obligatory. This was soon found to be impracticable, and the Professors were compelled to combine the use of text-books with the lectures. This is at present the method of instruction in that institution, and is that pursued at Miami. You will see that we announce in catalogue the text-books used in the several departments.

The impression that we have discontinued daily recitations, arose probably from the fact that we give such prominence to the examinations at the close of each term. These are conducted in writing, and are comprehensive and rigid. The standing of the student is determined by the results of his intermediate and final examinations. Nevertheless, we examine daily upon the text-books and the lectures, and send to parents and guardians monthly reports of the diligence and progress of our students.

Yours respectfully,

A. D. HEPBURN, Pres. of Miami University.

BOOK NOTICES.

LESSONS IN ELEMENTARY PHYSICS. By BALFOUR STEWART, F.R.S. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

This book, in the opinion of the writer, is one of the most perfect text-books ever issued from the press. The author is well known to scientists as one who has enriched the science of Physics in many orignal researches. This volume will establish his ability to write an elementary text-book. The arrangement and treatment of the various branches of Physics is such that the student may perceive the connection between them. Many authors who have attempted to write books representing the advanced state of this science, have been content to give a single chapter or possibly a few pages to what are sometimes termed the "modern views", and the remainder of the book is the old method, with perhaps a sprinkling of new matter. The importance of a thorough discussion and a complete understanding of the laws of energy is evident to every good instructor. In this book these laws are presented as soon as possible, and their spirit pervades the whole work, as the author says, "forming, as it were, the thread upon which the various divisions of the subject are strung together." The book is a model of comprehensive brevity, being small in bulk but "dense." The care and accuracy exhibited in the statement of facts is most agreeable to one accustomed to the looseness which is prevalent in this country. The book is greatly in need of a little "Americanizing" to render it suitable for the majority of our schools. This, however, may be accomplished by any judicious teacher. T. C. M.

ELEMENTS OF PLANE GEOMETRY. By THOMAS HUNTER, A.M. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is a little book of about 130 page, including a brief appendix on mensuration. The treatment of the subject is much more after the style of Euclid than many of our recent treatises. Several of the first propositions are problems, and the student is throughout urged to the constant use of the ruler and compasses, which is a most commendable feature. Many excellent test exercises are scattered throughout the book, their usefulness being perhaps somewhat impaired by the immediate proximity of a key. It is unfortunate that the book should be marred by the appearance of gross errors, a rapid examination revealing several; such as, "a circle is a plane figure bounded by a curved line such that every point upon it is equally distant from a point within called the centre", and "the radius is one-sixth of the circumference", than which a worse blunder could hardly have been committed. The book contains no discussion whatever of the method of finding the ratio of the circumference to the diameter of a circle. T. C. M.

ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY. By WM. F. BRADBURY, A.M. Boston: Thompson, Bigelow & Brown.

This book is written for Eaton's Mathematical Series. It is a 12mo book, of about 240 pages, and one is surprised to find that it comprises in so small a space a treatise on Geometry and Trigonometry, including a set of the usual accompanying tables. This is accomplished by the omission of a very large per cent. of the usual propositions, the treatise on Geometry containing, according to the author, no proposition which is not necessary to the understanding of the last. Many other propositions, such as are usually found in similar works, are thrown in as test exercises and examples. In the hands of a teacher who has a taste for "original research" in geometry, this will be a useful book, and the small amount of actual work required to master it, will make it popular in a large class of schools in which no very great

attention is paid to the "severer studies." The Trigonometry is confined to the solution of plane triangles. The trigonometrical functions are defined both geometrically and analytically, which is a good thing to see, but the author gives bad advice when he recommends the teacher to omit either the one or the other method of treatment. T. C. M.

CHASE AND STUART'S CLASSICAL SERIES. Edited by THOMAS CHASE, A.M., Professor of Classical Literature in Haverford College, Pa., GEORGE STUART, A.P., Professor of Latin in the Philadelphia Central High School, and E. P. CROWELL, A.M., Professor of Latin in Amherst College. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

This series now contains Cæsar's Commentaries, Cicero's Select Orations, Sallust's Catiline and Jugurthine War, Cornelius Nepos, First Six Books of Virgil's Æneid, Virgil's Æneid, Virgil's Eclogues, Georgics, and Moretum, Horace's Odes, Satires, and Epistles, Livy, Cicero de Senectute et de Amicitia, and Cicero de Officiis. The first four books named are edited by Prof. Stuart, the next five by Prof. Chase, and the last two by Prof. Crowell. They are all uniform in size of page, style of binding, and general arrangement. Among the excellences of the series are the accuracy and purity of the text, which has been taken from the very best sources and carefully compared with the best manuscripts, the clearness and conciseness of the notes, the clearness of the type, the convenience of the shape and size, and the low price of the several volumes. Neither the editors nor the publishers have spared any pains to make this the best series of Latin text-books extant for American schools. We know of no series which possesses equal merits.

ELEMENTARY DRAWING BOOK. By JOHN G. CHAPMAN, N.A. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

This is an elegant folio book of eighty-nine pages, bound in a style similar to modern text-books of geography. It contains a large number of well-graded exercises and models, accompanied by directions to teachers and pupils. These exercises are divided into four courses. The first course consists of simple exercises in drawing straight and curved lines, including the outlines of simple objects. The second is devoted to the drawing of the human head, and its several features. The third contains numerous exercises in drawing the hand, foot, and the entire human figure. The fourth contains a series of miscellaneous exercises, including animals, trees, and flowers. A characteristic feature of the work is the prominence given to the drawing of the human figure. The price is $1.50.

THE CRITICAL SPELLER: The Student's Own Hand-Book of Orthography, Definitions, and Sentences, consisting of Written Exercises in the Proper Spelling, Meaning, and Use of Words. By A. L. BARBER, M.A., Professor in Howard University, Washington, D. C.

The above title gives a general idea of this neat blank book, containing twenty pages. It is somewhat larger than an ordinary writing book. Each page is divided by vertical lines into three wide spaces of unequal width. The first is to contain the words spelled; the second, brief definitions of the same; and the third, sentences by the pupil containing the given words. The space for the words is subdivided, giving a space for the the prefix, one for the root or simple word, and one for the affix. It is the best book for use in teaching the spelling, meaning, and use of words that we have ever seen.

CHASE'S WRITING SPELLER AND DEFINER. Improved Edition. Chicago: Adams, Blackmer & Lyon Publishing Co.

This is a blank book for the use of pupils in spelling by writing. It is of the size and form of the ordinary writing books, and contains twenty-four pages. Each

page is divided by ruled lines into three wide spaces for words, with four narrow spaces for the numbers of the words. The central wide space is for "words corrected." A glance at the book is sufficient to show its great convenience and utility in teaching spelling.

—— The New Edition of Colton's Common School Geography, published by Sheldon & Co., New York, contains two large railroad maps and exercises thereon, and ten reference maps of the United States—very valuable additions.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Science of Elocution. By S. S. Hamill, A.M. New York: Nelson & Phillips. 1872.

Elements of Physiology and Hygiene. By R. T. Brown, M.D. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

A Grammar of the Greek Language. By Dr. George Curtius. New York: Harper & Brothers. Price $2.

Harper's Smaller School History of the United States. By David B. Scott. New York. Harper & Brother. Price $1.00.

Geometrical Analysis. By Benjamin Hallowell. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Studies in the English of Bunyan. By J. B. Grier. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

A Norwegian-Danish Grammar and Reader, with a Vocabulary. By Rev. C. J. P. Peterson. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. Price, $1.25.

The Histories of Livy. Edited and Annotated by Thomas Chase, M.A. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. Price $1.50.

The Eclogues, Georgics, and Moretum of Virgil. By George Stuart, A.M. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. Price $1.25.

A French Verb Book. By Ernest Lagarde, A.M. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. Price $1.00.

Human Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. By Joseph C. Martindale, M.D. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. Price $1.50.

Thompson's New Graded Series of Arithmetics: New Practical, New Rudiments, New Mental. New York: Clark & Maynard.

Monteith's Comprehensive Geography. By James Monteith. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. Price $1.60.

First Lines of English Grammar. Revised Edition. By Goold Brown. New York: William Wood & Co.

The Institutes of English Grammar. A New Edition. By Goold Brown. New York: William Wood & Co.

A Brief English Grammar. By Alexander Bain, LL.D. New York: Holt & Williams. Price 50 cts.

A First Latin Book. By Daniel G. Thompson. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. Price $1.50.

Writing Speller and Definer. Chicago: Adams, Blackmer & Lyon. Price $1.44 per dozen.

Alder's Progressive Drawing Copy Books. In a Series of Eight Numbers. New York: Berendsohn Bros.

Colton's New Geographies. New Edition, with Two Large Railroad Maps and Ten Reference Maps of the United States. New York: Sheldon & Co.

Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education. 1871. Washington: Government Printing Office.

Proceedings of the National Educational Association in St. Louis, 1871. Published by James H. Holmes, New York. Price $1.50.

Yale Lectures on Preaching. By Henry Ward Beecher. New York: J. B. Ford & Co. Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati. Price $1.25.

THE

ATIONAL TEACHER:

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A STATE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR OHIO.

'he State of Ohio now enjoys the unenviable distinction of ıg possibly the only State of the first class in the Union, ich has made no adequate provision for the normal training its teachers. We can not agree with our earnest State Comsioner of Common Schools, in believing "there are good reas for this." There is such a thing as a man or a State pering in a blunder until it begins to make its deficiency a badge distinction. The universal opinion of the educational world declared that the soul of every public school system is the mal training of teachers. The reasons for not accepting this versal law of modern education are not quite creditable to great commonwealth. The time has come when the cause popular education in Ohio, outside a few cities, demands the ous and concentrated efforts of its most determined and enıtened friends to save it from decline. It is time that the two ırests that have so long blocked the wheels of common-school ırm in our State—local partisan politics and private academjealousy—should subside in favor of this great need of the ple people. The three essentials of advancement for common ool education in Ohio are: 1. A thorough revision of the ool laws; 2. An effective system of supervision; 3. A state mal school.

We are not insensible to the praiseworthy efforts of various demical and collegiate institutions in this direction. We

doubtless owe it to them that our general system of instruction, outside the cities, has not fallen below its present condition. There is no reason why any of these agencies should be less effective than now; indeed, it would be well if a thorough normal department was established in every college and academy in the State. But no intelligent educator can seriously advocate the policy of the third State of the Union relying upon agencies over which it has no control for the normal training of its common-school teachers. In the first place, every college and academy represents the educational views of one man, a board of trustees, or a religious sect. These views are often crude and crotchety, generally modified by local or sectarian ideas, unsteady, and at variance with each other. The State can do nothing to harmonize such a medley of plans and theories into a consistent general system, except by the dangerous experiment of feeing these institutions with public money. Of this there is no end; and we trust the people of Ohio will never embark in this enterprise of bolstering our hundreds of needy colleges and academies with common school funds, in the vain hope of training their teachers therein.

Indeed, one great use of a State Normal School of commanding influence, is to polarize all these diverging private efforts by a central power. The State of Ohio can afford to do what no college or academy or private interest can: establish a normal training school which shall embody the best results achieved in all similar institutions in America and Europe. The State that is third in population, and not second in arms or statesmanship among its sister commonwealths, has a right to the use of the highest modern results of normal training for the instructors of her youth. Here should be the place where the ablest professors should present to our aspiring teachers the most enlarged ideas, the noblest incentives and the finest methods of their profession. Such a school would not only educate its own pupils, but every academical and collegiate normal class in the State would at once feel its invigorating power. They would all be compelled, at least, to give respectful consideration to its plans and ideas. It would be visited constantly by the officials of every such institution. Its superior graduates would find their way to influential and responsible positions all over the State, and the private normal instruction would be far more valuable than at present.

The argument that State Normal Schools can not fully supply

the demand for teachers, and are, therefore, unnecessary, is a part of the general objection to higher education at public expense. Our high schools and state universities can educate only a very small portion of our youth. But their graduates are found in every educational post of influence; become themselves centers of light and power; and, even as instructors of the people, repay a thousand fold the expense of their own training. Even the common school can not immediately and vitally handle one-half the children in any State; but it pours forth an army that is perpetually assailing the waste places of ignorace, superstition, and vice.

One living soul, tabernacled in that mighty and magnetic manhood known on earth as Horace Mann, rejuvenated the mechanical, old-school sytems of New England, and the ghost of Horace Mann keeps school in every village of the United States to-day. One normal school in the little city of Oswego, New York, has furnished a head to the training schools of Boston and Cincinnati, and is revolutionizing our whole American system of popular instruction. One powerful normal college, generously endowed and properly located, would educate, indirectly, every common-school teacher in Ohio.

We also need a State Normal School to give concentration and efficiency to our whole system of school institutes. Without it they are like limbs of a body deprived of its head, galvanized into spasmodic action by outward application; not moved by harmonious coöperation. The same want of intelligent grasp of centralizing ideas and methods, that vitiates our academical labors in this direction, prevails here. Much of the instruction given in these institutes is scattering and useless for the purpose required, even when good in itself. Miscellaneous lectures, the ventilation of educational whims, the lobbying of authors and book agents, consumes far too much of the precious time of these institutes. The most valuable conductors can rarely be obtained, and often the most vital want of the assembled teachers is not even apprehended. The most efficient friends of our institutes best know the advantage of a central corps of normal-school professors and pupils to inspire interest and direct the efforts in these associations. Beside, the school institute, like every temporary agency, needs preliminary training in its own subjects. Great as its value now is, it is perpetually hampered by the ignorance, conceit, and obstinacy generated by such teaching as prevails more or less in every community. As a rule, every pro-

fessional class must receive a preliminary professional training before it enters on its public career. We do not rely on medical societies, or ministerial associations, or lawyers' clubs to fit men already in practice for these professions. It is equally futile to suppose that our overworked common-school teachers can take from their weary hours of leisure sufficient time for efficient normal training. Our system of city institute and special training of teachers is seriously telling upon their health and spirits. All our institutes should be so organized as to waste no time on non-essentials and drive to the practical want of the hour. But this can never be done till every institute is in the hands of trained conductors, contains a group of thoroughly educated teachers, and is vitalized by connection with a central normal school.

This school should be planted in one of the larger cities of the State, where it could secure the indispensable advantage of an extensive department for practice. The State of Massachusetts is now suffering greatly from the narrow basis of organization and obscure location of several of its State Normal Schools. Admirable as are these institutions in the region of scholastic training and fertile as they are in educational theories, their practice department is so feeble that there is no efficient test of the teaching ability of their pupils. Large numbers of young ladies are thus yearly launched upon the schools of Massachusetts with little fitness for their work. The State of Ohio can not afford to erect a pile of buildings to adorn a country village or a clearing in the woods, which shall be an educational nunnery for the merely academical and theoretical education of a few hundred green school girls. The preliminary culture of its pupils should be gained elsewhere. Its standard for admission should be high and relentless. It should be in the best sense a school of methods and of practice, from which all incompetent material should be weeded out. We believe it would be best, for the present, to concentrate on one great school of this kind, located perhaps at Columbus, on which the State could bestow a sufficient endowment to ensure a great success. This achieved, we shall be in a condition to organize our final system of normal training for the State. We trust no educational plank-road arrangement; no hybrid scheme of pensioning private institutions; no weary waiting for dead men's wills and testaments; no futile attempt to work a hundred extremities without a heart, will come across the track of such a consummation. A. D. Mayo.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

[From the forthcoming report of the Ohio Commissioner of Common Schools.]

With a very few exceptions, county examiners are earnest educational men; and, although not all professional teachers, most of them have had some practical experience in school work of various kinds. The compensation they receive is small, in comparison with the importance of the responsibilities they are required to assume; yet it is doubtful whether the duties of any other class of school officials are performed more faithfully or more intelligently.

There is not only a desire but a determination manifested, in many counties, to raise the standard of qualifications heretofore required of teachers. A comparison of the lists of questions used as examination tests in 1869 with those used the past year, will show that, so far as these tests are concerned, examinations are not made much more difficult now than they were three years ago. It is to be hoped that but few teachers can be found who desire that the standard indicated by these tests should be lowered in the least. The scholastic attainments necessary for an applicant to possess, in order to pass a creditable examination, are, in reality, very meagre indeed. They can be obtained in many of our country schools, in the grammar-school departments of our best graded schools, and in the preparatory department of any first-class academy or seminary. A parent who would entrust the intellectual development and training of his child to one unable to answer a large proportion of the questions in any list published in this report—a larger proportion, even, than most boards of examiners require to be answered—places an exceedingly low estimate upon the value and importance of the teacher's work.

It is not necessary, perhaps not desirable, that examinations be made more difficult, in theory at least, than they have been heretofore. The standard of qualifications can be raised by requiring of applicants a greater familiarity with methods of instruction, a larger per cent. of accurately expressed answers, correct orthography, good penmanship, knowledge of principles as well as facility in the application of rules, and evidence of ability to rouse the dormant energies of his pupils to healthy, vigorous action. A noted writer defines education as "thought

kindling itself at the altar fires of living thought." Unless the "fires of living thought" burn bright on the altar of a teacher's intellect, no heat will enliven the intellects of his pupils. To these requirements may be added an acquaintance with the best practical works on mental and moral science, and intelligence in matters of general interest, without which a teacher will do routine work only, follow the lead of fanciful theorists, or vainly attempt to imitate those whose methods he can not use successfully, being ignorant of the philosophy upon which they are founded, and, consequently, incapable of modifying them to answer the demands of varying circumstances. A course similar in many respects to the one recommended above, has doubtless been pursued by those examiners who have been most successful in their efforts to drive incompetency and inefficiency from our public schools.

It is certainly desirable that boards of examiners throughout the State should adopt and use some uniform method of ascertaining the qualifications of applicants for certificates. Those rejected by one board frequently obtain certificates from another, although the tests used by both boards are nearly or quite identical in kind and character. It is doubtful, however, whether any definite, specific rules can be laid down by which examiners shall be governed in their criticism of examination papers. The estimates any two individuals place upon the value of work done, and hence upon the worth of the one performing it, are often widely different—that which one considers indispensable to excellence being trivial or unimportant in the estimation of the other. A general rule to be observed by all to whom the difficult and often delicate task of examination is assigned, is this: Determine the percentage of merit from the character and not from the number of questions answered or problems solved, and increase or diminish this percentage to express the estimate that should be placed upon the manner in which an applicant's work is performed. In a list of ten questions, it rarely happens that any two are equally difficult or important. One may test the retentiveness of the memory; the other, the ability to use logical processes in reasoning. To assign equal values to these two questions in determining results, and to credit each of two applicants with ten per cent. merit, one of whom answers the first but is unable to answer the second, the other answering the second correctly but failing to answer the first, is manifestly unjust. Percentages estimated in this way are valueless, and those

who place confidence in them are liable to be misled. An applicant may answer eight of the ten questions in a given list, and still not furnish satisfactory evidence of thorough scholarship—failure to answer the other two indicating ignorance of the fundamental principles or leading facts of the science to which the whole ten relate. Hence, an examination paper should be criticised as a whole, and its value determined more from its general character and appearance, its indications of intellectual training and discipline, its unmistakable evidences of accuracy and thoroughness in scholarship, than from the number of correct answers or solutions it may contain. The judgment of every intelligent examiner protests against that "iron-clad" system which forces him to tabulate numbers without discrimination, and to execute mercilessly whatever sentence they pronounce.

Whenever determined attempts to adopt progressive measures are made by boards of examiners, objections are raised by a small class of teachers who claim that the salaries they receive do not warrant the expenditure of time and money required to keep them abreast of the times. They labor on the farm or in the workshop a portion of the year, and teach only when they can not obtain other equally remunerative employment. They claim also that the cares and duties of life engross their entire attention, and that their incomes are expended in providing for the wants of those dependent upon them for support. To some, it seems unkind, if not unjust, for boards of examiners to withhold certificates from these eminently conservative teachers, merely because they fail to meet the requirements of an advanced standard of qualifications. To do so would be unjust, were it not true, that, in our country, circumstances which absolutely prevent the prosecution of studies of any kind rarely surround a willing student. In the case of non-progressive teachers, inclination to study is wanting, not opportunity. If one-half of the time squandered by this class in amusements needful or the health of neither body nor mind, or in aimless, desultory, general reading, were spent in systematic self-culture, they would soon cease to fear or dread the severest examination tests. Limited educational advantages were enjoyed, in youth, by some of the best teachers in the State. Adverse circumstances have surrounded them since they commenced their professional career. They have won their well-earned reputations by industry, self-denial, and persistent self-discipline. Others can do what they have done, and those who will not attempt to emulate them,

should not complain if they fail to receive the sympathies of examiners, or, if those who are diligent and persevering, outstrip them in the race for preferment.

THE ART OF TEACHING.

What is teaching? Let us illustrate and define. *Teacher* (requiring the pupil to pass his hand over the surface of the blackboard). What kind of a surface is it? *Pupil.* A flat or plane surface. *Teacher.* Make four straight lines meeting each other. What do these lines inclose? *Pupil.* A portion of a plane. Write the words on the board. How is this portion of a plane bounded? It is bounded by straight lines. Write this under the first. Bounded by how many lines? Four. Write. Tell me what you have. A portion of a plane, bounded by straight lines, four in number.

What is any portion of a plane bounded by lines called? A plane figure. Describe this figure. It is a four sided plane figure. Quadrilateral means having four sides. What may you call this figure? A quadrilateral. Right. What is a quadrilateral? A quadrilateral is a plane figure bounded by four straight lines. Make six quadrilaterals on the board.

Observing carefully this illustration of teaching, we derive our definition from it, namely: *Teaching is presenting an object of thought to the mind of the pupil in such a manner as to lead him to think and gain knowledge.*

First. The teacher presents the object of thought in such a way as to secure the attention of the pupil. The vital element of all teaching is mental activity. The mind of the teacher must lead the mind of the pupil. It is not merely a cold, intellectual process. Thought, feeling, and volition are all involved. The teacher must be earnest, definite, sympathetic. Thus led, the pupil apprehends the object of thought, feels an interest, and voluntarily gives himself to the lead of the teacher. The pupil's mind must be actively at work with the teacher. One can not teach if he has not the power to hold the attention of the pupil. Since in schools we must teach classes, the teacher must have the power to hold the attention of every member of his class, or he fails in his work.

Second. The teacher by appropriate questions, leads the pupil to discover for himself the truths he would have him learn, and then to state them. He tells the pupil that which he can not find out for himself without too much time and effort. He leads the pupil to think. The pupil must think for himself, must get the knowledge for himself. In this way he learns to think and to express his thoughts. He gets *ideas* first, then the right words for their expression. This is the natural order. The words thus learned have meaning.

Third. The pupil by his own thinking gains knowledge, the only way in which he can acquire it. It is real knowledge which he can use. In this illustration the knowledge gained is a definition, the sum of the essential marks of the object, the marks which belong in common to all quadrilaterals.

All that the teacher can do for his pupil is, to present to his mind the right object of thought in the right way. The pupil, under the guidance of the teacher, must think for himself, must gain knowledge for himself, and thus he acquires the ability and the inclination to make the right use of his mental power. When by the oral teaching now described, the pupil has gained ideas and associated them with their appropriate words, the author may be his teacher. He can then read the printed page and be led by it to think and gain knowledge. This is the written method of teaching. Both methods are necessary, but oral teaching is vastly more effective than written. It is indispensable in all branches of study, and with all grades of pupils. With the youngest pupils no other can be used. As the pupil learns how to study and gets a love for it, less oral teaching and more of written may be used; but so long as the living teacher is needed by the pupil, it is mainly for the oral teaching which he gives. The object of oral teaching is three-fold: to show the pupil *what* to study, to teach him *how* to study, and to excite his interest in the work. To accomplish this object the oral teaching should be given when the lesson is assigned to the pupil; then he knows how to prepare himself for a thorough examination upon the lesson.—a subsequent part of the teacher's work, and indispensable to the pupil,—to the end that he may become an independent, self-reliant worker.

Teacher and pupil must work together, must be in sympathy. If the pupil has no appetite for intellectual food, the teacher must create one; he must be able to excite an interest in subjects of study which are not in themselves attractive to the pupil.

The art of teaching, then, includes all the means by which the teacher sustains the attention of his class.

What are the conditions for securing the attention of pupils?

First of all, the teacher must know the laws of mental activity; he must know what the powers of the mind are, and how they are called into exercise. One who would lead another must know how to address him so that he will be willing to follow. The teacher must not only know the general laws of mental activity, but he must form a distinct and definite estimate of the mental and moral character of each pupil. How else can he bring them into sympathy with himself, and inspire them with a love for the work that shall secure their vigorous effort for its accomplishment.

Not only must the teacher know the mind he is to teach, but he must thoroughly know the subject he is to present; he must know much more than he teaches, and he must have a ready command of his knowledge The want of knowledge is the greatest hindrance to success. It makes the attempt to teach irksome, oftentimes disgusting, while the right use of this knowledge of the mind and the subject-matter makes teaching one of the most delightful of all occupations.

Not all of any subject can be taught; hence, the teacher must select what the pupil can understand and what is most important for him to know.

Every lesson should have a *definite aim.* The teacher should decide what points he will make, in what order he will take them, and how he will present them. Such teaching will be like a well defined sermon, which an earnest listener commended by saying, "I like that kind of preaching; there is something in it you can grab." It makes an impression.

The first question every teacher should ask in selecting the points of a lesson is, What do my pupils know of this subject? We must begin with what the pupil knows if we would carry him successfully forward to higher attainments.

Another condition of success is the *proper arrangement of the ideas* to be taught. All lessons should be given in topics. By a topic we mean a distinct subject of thought. Topics may be given orally to young pupils; with older pupils they may be given as printed in a well-arranged text-book, or they may be given in writing. The pupil should be able to tell the subject of his lesson, and give the outline of topics which it contains. Such an arrangement of lessons avoids confusion in the teaching, helps

the pupil to understand and to remeber it; the lesson gives him real knowledge, and accustoms him to think in a logical manner.

Attention is to be gained by observing the *right mode of communicating* ideas. Lessons must be made plain to pupils. Ideas and facts are to be stated in their simplest form. Many ideas must be illustrated to make them clear to the mind of the pupil. This may be done by the use of verbal illustrations, or by the use of objects, or by diagrams and pictures. Definitions are to be worked out from observation and illustration after the manner indicated in the opening of this article.

Care in regard to the language used in teaching is very important in securing attention. The teacher's language is the medium of his thought; as such it should be *simple* in the words and in the construction used. It should be *precise*, exactly conveying his meaning and nothing more. It is also a model for is pupils, and should be worthy of their imitation. Good utterance is of the highest importance in securing attention. The teacher can not do too much in improving his manner of speaking.

Last, but not least, is the teacher's manner. Every movement nd every attitude is observed, and has its influence. A good anner tells strongly in the teacher's favor. The teacher should be cheerful, animated, self-possessed, enthusiastic, and decided. uch a manner will command attention.

A full lecture might be written upon any one of the points we ave so briefly touched upon. If what has been written shall uggest what might have been said, the end of this article is eached.—A. G. BOYDEN *in The Teacher.*

OME FACTS ON THE EARLY HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

Edward D. Neill's late work entitled "The English Colonization of America during the Seventeenth Century", contains a good deal of interesting matter relating to the first attempts to plant institutions of education in Virginia. It appears that, under the auspices of the Virginia Company, as early as the year 1618, a general contribution was made for the establishment of a college within the territory of Henrico, and that ten thou-

sand acres of land were set aside as an endowment. The collections taken up amounted to over two thousand pounds. Other donations of both cash and books were afterwards contributed. Various schemes were proposed and discussed as to the best method of inaugurating in the wilds of the New World, the good work it was so pleasant to talk about in the parlors of London. The principal object in view was the instruction of the Indian children in the rudiments of useful knowledge and the precepts of the Christian religion. But months and even years passed by and nothing was actually accomplished. Upon the reorganization of the Virginia Company under the energetic presidency of Sir Edwin Sandy's, affairs in Virginia became prosperous. Near the close of the year 1621, nine ships with eight hundred colonists arrived safely at Jamestown. The good news of the safe arrival of their ships having been duly received in London, it was resolved by the Company to mark the happy event by appropriate ceremonies. Accordingly a formal sermon was delivered at Bow Church, London, on the 18th of April, 1622, by Patrick Copland, chaplain of the East India Company. The design to express "thankfulness to God for His great and extraordinary blessing", was able and enthusiastic, and greatly increased the popular interest in the American colonies. The subject of establishing a college and schools was revived with enthusiasm. Copland, the soul of the enterprise, was elected Rector of the proposed college. It now seemed probable that the long deferred hopes of the philanthropic would soon be realized. But the next tidings from across the sea were such as to quite extinguish all expectation of any early consummation of the cherished project. At noon on good Friday, March 12th, 1622, the plantations about Jamestown were attacked by the savages, led by the son of Powhattan, and about 350 men, women, and children were massacred. In view of this terrible calamity, the Company abandoned the design of any immediate action in reference to education in Virginia, but requested George Sandys, then resident in Jamestown, to take temporary charge of the college interests. The Virginia Company was dissolved in 1623. In the following year an unsuccessful attempt was made to establish an East India school.

Neill says that from the time of the settlement of Plymouth, the educated and religious preferred the Northern, "because King James had made the Southern a penal colony." "Early in 1620", he adds, "the first large installment of vagabonds and

lestitute persons arrived in Virginia, and yearly their num-ber increased, and the desire for schools and churches propor-tionately decreased."

It was not until the year 1691, that the first college was estab-ished in Virginia,—the College of William and Mary, at Wil-iamsbugh. The intellectual condition of the people at the be-ginning of the 18th Century, may be inferred from the preamble to the Statutes of the College, which Neill quotes as follows:

"Nowhere was there any greater danger on account of ignorance and want of instruction than in the English colonies of America, in which the first planters had much to do in a country overrun with weeds and briers, and for many years infested with the incursions of the barbarous Indians, to earn a mean livelihood with hard labor. There were no schools to be found in those days, nor any opportunity for good education.

"Some few, and a very few, indeed, of the richer sort sent their children to England to be educated, and these, after many dangers from the seas and enemies, and unusual distempers occasioned by the change of country and climate, were often taken off by small-pox and other diseases. *It was no wonder if this occasioned a great defect of understanding and all sort of literature, and that it was followed with a new generation of men far short of their forefathers, which, if they had the good fortune, though at a very different rate, to read and write, had no further commerce with the muses or learned sciences, but spent their life ignobly with the hoe and spade, and other employments of an uncultivated and unpolished country.* There remained still, notwith-standing, a small remnant of men of better spirit, who had the benefit of bet-ter education themselves in their mother country, or at least had heard of it from others. These men's private conferences among themselves produced at last a scheme of a free school and college."

More than fifty years before the college of William and Mary was established, the Puritans in New England organized Har-vard University. This was in 1638. The history of the early planting of our free school system in New England is familiar to every one.

The English were not the first, however, to organize educa-tional institutions in America. This distinction belongs to the French. The ubiquitous and indomitable Jesuits had a college and mission school at Quebec in 1637.

Cincinnati, Oct. 1872. W. H. VENABLE.

READING.

It is well known, at least to teachers, that there are various theories of teaching reading to very young children. The old method, still adhered to by many, is to begin with the *name* of the letters, and then jump to the *power* of letters in combination;

and we sometimes think it very strange that the child can't see that "h-a-t" spells "hat", when, in fact, he has no reason in the world to think it spells anything, or, at most, only "aitch-a-ty." But, bad as this system, or lack of system, is, children do learn to read, though not by any *direct* instruction. This is the child's first experience in school of "obtaining knowledge under difficulties", and furnishes an excellent illustration of his aptness to learn, and his ability to overcome, partially, the hindrances of poor teaching.

Another method is that of beginning with the powers, or elementary sounds, before the names of the letters are given, and combining them, thus forming words.

Still a third method is that of beginning with the *word* as the unit of significance, and analyzing the spoken word into its elementary sounds, and the written word into letters. While I am aware that many excellent teachers advocate the second method, it seems to me that the third is more in accordance with the manner of learning to talk, and appeals more immediately to the intellect.

It must, I think, be easier and more interesting to take a word, the sign of an idea, and resolve it into its parts, than to work with the utterly unmeaning elementary sounds until we have constructed the significant sign. It seems to me that the machinist finds it a more interesting as well as easier process, having seen the machine as a whole, to take it apart and examine it, than he would to construct the several parts, and put them together without any idea what it is to be till it is finished. But whether teachers begin with one or the other of the two latter methods, their work soon becomes essentially the same. They both differ from the first in being intelligent methods, which the first is not. But this is only the first step in learning to read, and it has seemed to me that the next step—that of putting words together in phrases and sentences—is quite as important, and perhaps more so. The monotonous habits acquired by reading sentences, before the pupil is perfectly familiar with the words and phrases, are often carried through life.

There are certain words, as the articles and the auxiliary verbs, for instance, that stand in the relation of unaccented syllables to the words to which they belong; and I think the sentence should not be read till the pupil can pronounce these combinations as one word. Thus, I would have the pupil able to pronounce rapidly the phrases, "can spin", "the boy", "the top",

before he is required to read the sentence, "The boy can spin the top." It then conveys to his mind some meaning, instead of being a mere string of words, as they are, if, with some difficulty and silent spelling of the words, he reads, "The—boy—can—spin—the—top."—B. F. TWEED *in the Teacher.*

NARROW TEACHERS.

The complaint is often heard that teachers become fussy, arbirary and narrow in their views, and good for nothing else. 'his statement is true, except the last clause, for if one has fallen ıto that condition. he is certainly unfit to teach. Such, doubtıss, is the tendency in this profession; but it can be resisted, ıd that successfully. There is, however, but one way in which) do it, and that is by a persistent and liberal culture of the ıind. I have, in my experience, met with many teachers hose society was as rich and genial as any I have ever found; ut this has always come of constant mental activity and discipline. Believe me, teachers, by this means, and by this only, ın you resist the narrowing influence of your work. You must ːarn to wield a free and intelligent judgment in various spheres. ou may, for instance, even in the midst of your work, by a roper training of mind and heart, possess tastes that shall be) far consonant with the true principles of art as to catch the ıspirations of nature. Sympathy with nature is one of the ıost potent preventives of the evils to which I have alluded. . teacher, furthermore, should be in constant communication ːith the great masters of thought, especially in our own lanuage. To neglect this seems to me inexcusable. It argues a mallness of mind and perversion of taste that should find no lace in the work of instructing living souls.—*Conn. School ournal.*

——IN the early history of Harvard College students were unished by *whipping*, and they were forbidden to use the Engsh language on the College premises. Latin was spoken.

ONE WAY OF PROMOTING THE HEALTH OF PUPILS.

Duty may pertain to the soul, mind or body. Many seem to fancy that it relates only to the first two.

I have known those who so habitually and shamefully neglected physical law, that it was impossible for them to say "Good morning" in such a manner as to make the morning better for their wishing it "good." The voice was such a revelation of ills, pains, undigested food, uncleanness, bad circulation, that it seemed to nip sweet thoughts and shadow bright hopes. We have all seen others, whose greetings brought strength and renewed good purposes.

In my walks about town I frequently meet a gentleman, so strong, so erect, so free, whose every motion is elastic strength and grace! I somehow feel that I have been saluted by a fortunate Ponce de Leone, who has actually found the fount of perpetual youth,—and yet the silver brush has firmly touched beard and hair. I come, too, into daily contact with young women, slender, dark, sallow, solemn paced, who remind me of an underground prison I once visited, the walls of which were cold, dripping moisture that had no chance to sparkle in the sunshine.

We may lack charity, still we can not help putting our acquaintances into one of two classes: those that are vigorous, *glowing* centers of light and heat, and those that are weak, who make us curb our animal spirits and draw us into their gloom —of course there are some exceptions, but they "prove the rule."

A good, genial Christian man becomes a little sick, ten chances to one he will grow crabbed, forcing his wife to walk very cautiously before him and his children a great distance from him. We rightly blame the body for the change in spirit. The conclusion is inevitable that there is an intimate connection between them. It is hard to understand the nature of this relation. The body is said to be the casket, the mind or spirit the jewel, but, unlike other caskets and their jewels, the marring or soiling of the one dims and lessens the other. If this be so, it is a duty to care for the body—a *crime* to neglect it.

But why say this in a teachers' journal? Because only the comparatively young can be taught this truth in such a manner as to have it affect the life. Physical law, like moral law, must be *grown* into a person, must become a part of him—not worn on the outside like a cloak to be doffed at pleasure. Teachers must

make the children wise in these matters; it is a duty; and the more our educational journals say on this point the better it will be for all.

It ought to make one blush to be compelled to acknowledge that for a woman to obey physiological law, requires *moral courage*—and yet all know that it is so. Few women have the bravery to wear clothing so loose as to cause no pressure, giving the body room to grow to that proportion which is natural and necessary. This cowardice is communicated to the girls, and in early teens we see them no longer wearing the free, simple dress of girlhood, but the restraining garments which are unfit for adults, much more for growing children; so their bodies are made conformable to corsets and their ideas to public opinion. No wonder girlhood, with all its spring and bloom, is so soon lost. It is painful to see the old bodies and faces among young women.

I see little help for this abuse, so long as the multitude is on one side and a few men and women on the other, unless teachers can create a noble public opinion in their schools, thus getting the start of the evil one.

Not long since I heard a lady say: "I can not tell how I became possessed of the idea that I was uncomfortable in tight dresses. When only eight or ten years old, my mother used to exhort the dress-maker not to be afraid of making my clothes much me. But I used to '*swell up*' judiciously at that critical moment when the size of the waists was being determined, and unaccountably the dresses were always larger when done than when fitted. By little devices of this kind I managed to be *free* for a dozen years.

"At thirteen I studied primary physiology—learned the great laws that should govern us. I reasoned that since God gave me my body as well as soul, I had no more right to abuse or defile one than the other; so I bathed often, never ate between meals, masticated my food thoroughly, breathed fresh air when I could contrive to get it, and never wore tight dresses. I found that the body is an honest, sensitive thing when well treated, honestly reporting all abuses—abhorring them too—in these respects like the conscience, which may be kept tender and true, or made hard and false. Tight shoes and dresses seemed to throw my system into a great nettle—my temper into a greater one,—not a pleasant state for self or friends. Thus I grew to womanhood free in body—and bodily freedom goes far towards emancipating the mind. I have followed one profession sixten years, steadily

advancing in it, am never sick, and almost always happy. Whatever of success I have had, is largely due to the ideas of health obtained before I was fourteen."

I have referred to this lady to show how early impressions remain, influence all the life, make it healthful, joyful, and useful. Of course, baneful ideas are equally adhesive, staining the whole character, poisoning the air breathed by those with whom we habitually associate. I know some teachers are cowards, unwilling to do the right if it be not popular,—but I also know that very many are brave, daring to see the truth, and to walk in its light. To such I want to point out a few simple ways (which will offend few, possibly none,) by which they can sow seeds in their pupils' minds, which will germinate and grow into strong, settled principles regarding the care of and respect for the body, "the temple of God."

First, be models yourselves—free from the dominion of false, foolish notions,—dress comfortably—be clean—let no garment fetter the body. Introduce light gymnastics into your school, and be prepared to give every exercise beautifully which you demand of your scholars. This will involve dresses large at the bottom of the waist that they may easily move on the body, and short on the shoulder to allow the arms to play. Have plenty of room over the chest. Carry yourself erect. In standing, let the knee of the supporting limb be firm. Take enough sleep and good food. Give a tithe as much grooming to the surface of the body as any hostler gives the animals in his care. Be *thankful* you are well, and try to be better. Do no oppress the weak by your strength, but be not afraid to show that you rejoice in it. Thus your simple presence will be a healthful stimulus.

Besides giving the general directions necessary to instruction in gymnastics, a teacher can take advantage of the peculiarly fine points in her pupils in such a way as to create enthusiasm in the others to become like the more fortunate ones. For example, at recess a group of half a dozen girls may be about the teacher chatting familiarly. She turns to one saying, "Sallie, how nice your new dress is, so loose and comfortable, warm, too. I like that. To another, "I see you drive a horse well. I am glad you are fond of being out in the fresh air. Your drives make you have those bright healthy cheeks. Walking must be almost as good as riding, for here is Jenny, whom I see running all about town for her mother, is just as rosy and well as you are." Of an absent one it may be right to say: "Have you all noticed how

perfectly and beautifully Alice takes the hardest exercises in school? I wonder if it is not because she is so strong. She is as straight as an arrow, and has such a fine large waist, and her dress, too, is so loose that it allows her to be quick, exact, and graceful."

In walking with a pupil these words might be appropriate: "You do not know how much pleasure you are giving me these days. I see that you are getting broader across the chest every week. You are trying to stand erect, and that will certainly fill those naughty hollows in front of your shoulders with good, hard muscle. You are gaining so many victories that I fancy you will soon attack that old fault of turning your toes in when you walk. One victory always paves the way for another."

Besides the quiet little ways that good teachers invent to reach individual pupils, there are those more marked and public. Put a premium on physical perfection and good habits,—make the children strive after these by choosing for leaders in light gymnastics, the boys and girls that have some one of the following good points, viz.: fine figure (taking the Greek Slave as model), free dress, fine position of feet, personal neatness, regular hours for eating, etc. Call attention of the school to the points which determined the selection. If any desire the position of leader, kindly mention the faults that disqualify them. Never allude to deformities which can not be overcome.

By a thousand devices the teacher who has this matter at heart, will contrive to impress upon the children's minds right ideas regarding the body. But "her practice must be as good as her preaching", else the hypocrite and coward will be seen by the young eyes, in spite of the lion's skin.

A kind, tender, wise, enthusiastic, constant allusion to these matters, can not fail to do lasting good—not to all, but to some bright, brave souls who see duty and cling to it.

I have said this to women, not that they alone need higher standards and better practice, but because they constitute so large a proportion of the teaching force in our land. I believe men might exert an untold influence for good, if they would oftener express admiration for the truly beautiful in women, and less for the artificial and pernicious. Gentlemen teachers should frequently commend the young men and women in their classes who manifest genuine sense in these matters, thus leading them to feel that on their side there is a noble minority, if not a large majority.

MARY V. LEE.

PRIZES FOR SUICIDE.

We have all heard of the testimony of the Boston physicians against the system of forcing pursued by the public schools of that city,—of its tendency to produce nervous diseases, and even, in some instances, insanity itself. The testimony is so strong and positive, and so unanimous, that it must be accepted as true. Some weeks ago, at the commencement anniversary of a college, not in Boston or New England, a long row of young men was called up to receive the prizes awarded to various forms of acquisition and scholarship. It was pleasant to see their shining faces, and to witness their triumph; but the pleasure was spoiled by the patent fact that their victories had been won at the expense of physical vitality. Physically, there was not a well-developed man among them; and many of them were as thin as if they had just arisen from a bed of sickness. After they had left the stage, a whole class was called on, to receive their diplomas. The improvement in the average physique was so great that there was a universal recognition of the fact by the audience; and whispered comments upon it went around the assembly. The poorer scholars were undeniably the larger and healthier men. The victors had won a medal, and lost that which is of more value than the aggregate of all the gold medals ever struck.

There is one lesson which teachers, of all men living, are the slowest to learn, viz., that scholarship is not power, and that the ability to acquire is not the ability to do. The rewards of excellence in schools and colleges are, as a rule, meted out to those who have demonstrated their capacity for acquiring and cramming. The practical world has ceased to expect much of its valedictorians and its prize-medal bearers. Those whose growth of power is slow, and whose vitality has been unimpaired by excessive study during the years of physical development, are the men who do, and who always have done, the work of the world. Thousands of educated men go through life with feeble health, and power impaired, and limited usefulness, in direct consequence of their early triumphs, or, rather, of the sacrifices by which those triumphs were won.

We can not but believe that prizes do more harm than good, and that it would be a blessing to the nation if they could be abolished in every school and college in the country. They are won invariably by those who need rather to be restrained than

stimulated, and are rarely contended for by those whose sluggish natures alone require an extraordinary motive to exertion and industry. Their award is based upon the narrowest grounds. Their tendency is to convey a false idea of manly excellence, and to discourage the development of the stronger and healthier forms of physical and mental life. The young man who goes to the work of his life with a firm and healthy frame, a pure heart, and the ability to use such knowledge as he possesses, is worth to himself, his friends, and the world, a thousand times more than the emaciated scholar whose stomach is the abode of dyspepsia and whose brain is a lumber-house of unused learning. If we have any prizes to give, let us give them to those young men of delicate organizations and the power of easy acquisition who restrain their ambition to excel in scholarship, and build up for themselves a body fit to give their minds a comfortable dwelling place and forcible and facile service. These would be prizes worth securing, and they would point to the highest form of manhood as their aim and end.

The tendency in all these educational matters is to extremes. It is quite as much so in England as here. We have no sympathy with the aim which is fostered in some institutions of making athletes of the students. Base-ball matches, and rowing matches, and acrobatic feats are well enough for those who have no brains to cultivate, or who are not engaged in educating or storing them; but they are not the things for studious young men. The awful strain that they inflict upon the body draws all the nervous energy to the support of the muscular system, and kills the ability to study. More than all, they wound the vitality of every man who engages in them. We once heard an English clergyman say that every noted athlete of his (the clergyman's) class in the university was either dead or worse. Moderate play every day in the open air, limited hours of study in the daytime, pleasant social intercourse, unlimited sleep, good food, the education of power by its use in writing, speaking, and debating —these are what make men of symmetry, health, and usefulness. The forcing process, in whatever way applied, and to whatever set of powers, is a dangerous process. We make a great stir over the flogging of a refractory boy by a teacher. Whole communities are sometimes convulsed by what is regarded as a case of physical cruelty in a school, but the truth is, that the ferule and the rawhide are the mildest instruments of cruelty in the hands of more teachers than can be counted. The boy who is

crowded to do more than he ought to do in study, and so crowded, that he is enfeebled, or takes on disease of the brain and nervous system at the first onset of sickness, is the victim of the subtlest cruelty that can be practiced upon him.

We write strongly of these things because we feel strongly. We believe that there is a wrong practiced upon the children and young men of the country that ought to be righted. We believe, too, that not only teachers but parents are blameworthy in this matter. It all comes of a false idea of education. To acquire what is written in books—in the quickest way and in the greatest quantity—this is education in the popular opinion. The enormous mistakes and fatal policies of which we complain all grow out of this error. Half of the schooling which we give those children who go to school would be better than the whole; while the poor third, who do not go to school at all, would give employment to the unused energies of those teachers whose time would be released to them by such a reduction of school hours. Six hours of daily imprisonment for a child is cruelty, without any reference to the tasks to which he is held during that period. —J. G. HOLLAND, *in Scribner's Monthly.*

LANGUAGE LESSONS IN PRACTICE.

The class in McGuffey's Third Reader had the following questions in composition, and the answers were written upon paper:

Question 1. Where would you like to spend your vacation?

James: I will work, and perhaps get fifty cents a day.

Joseph: I would like to go to "Bufly" (Buffalo).

Louisa: I shall stay at home, because it is so nice to take care of your brothers and sisters.

Nettie: I am going to visit a lady. She is a good lady and she lives on the West Side, she has no children, nor she never did have any.

2. What relation are you to your uncle?

Mike: It is there Ants. (!)

Peter: I am my uncles neice.

Sam.: I am his cousins.

Lucy: I am my uncles granddaughter.

Frank: I am a good relation to my uncle.

George: I am related to my uncle because I know him, and he knew me when I was a baby.

Fannie (7 years old): My uncle is my Mamma or papa's brother.

3. What relation are his children to you?

Fannie (again): They are my cousins, he is married and has children and therefore they are my cousins.

4. What do merchants do?

Phœbe: The merchants fight.

Dinah: The merchants do cap (keep) large dogs.

John: The merchants keep banks, some are in the ascurance (insurance) company.

The word knowledge was given them to include in a sentence, and one boy wrote: "I have a knowledge cousin." Another: "I was talking with some boys about school, and I found they had not a great deal of knowledge."

The next are miscellaneous:

"In the country there is a grate many weeds, more than *you* want to pick up in a year."

This from a foreigner: "Conductor is good, he have big garden. Conductor wont lefe nobody on, he haf ty pay."

Pert boy: "Any lady can bake, that is if she is not too lazy, but they don't want so many children around them."

Susan: "My mother bakes bread every week and pies every Friday."

——— : "A carpenter builds house and before he builds the house he but puts the fring (frame) up and the chips boards, (boards) and then he puts in the dows and windows and then he puts in the flower and then the house is *down*." (He must have been thinking of dishonest contractors.)

Little Bohemian Girl: "I have a baby, and it is a angels."

Willie: "In a picture there was an old man and he was drunk every day, and one day his mother said you may go away and he was very sorry and then his mother said he must go and then he went by the pontains (mountains) and there were a lots of fokes they gave him some to drink and then he sleep twenty years and when he got up he found his clothes all torn."

Describing a drawing on the board: "I think it is a horse has four slaes hitched onto his tale and he pulles them with his tale,

and he is very poor and has but two legs and no eyes and no eares and no mouth, and his tale is a *left curve*" (!) (Teachers of penmanship will see the point of this *narrative.*)

———: "It is a bird, and he is made out of feathers."

Sometimes the teacher writes a portion of a sentence on the board, and requires the pupils to supply omitted words, as, "Save your l—— l—— until recess." This rather obscure advice was interpreted: "Save your little lives"! etc. It was meant for—Save your *loud laughter* until recess.

The children also supply name-words to the quality words placed upon the board, as, "Sweet as —— molasses —— as brown bread." "As green as —— leaves." "Brown as dirt——paint." "Black as blacking." "Bright as ribbons." "Pretty as girls." "White as plaster." "Slow as a toad "——"old man." "As still as we are now." "As noisy as a pack of rowdies"!—"engine whistle."

Once we tried rhyme,—they having to supply only one word to rhyme with the last in the first line. This was the line we gave:

Take the wire
Out of the ——

And *this* was theirs:

Take the wire
Out of the "hoop-skirt"!

One or two thought of "fire."

On one occasion we took the first verse of a familiar piece of poetry, and the children tried to substitute the last word or two of every line in this way:

"O were you never a beauty
And did you never see a bear?
And feel that wind of the sky,
You never can feel it."

"O were you ne'er an invalid?
And did you never go
And feel that pain of the head?
You ne'er can feel good."

When the children, with sober faces, read their own little blunders, the ludicrous effect on the teacher is almost apparent. To a great extent you can make anything you choose out of these embryo authors, and forever dispel the old dread of composition writing. H. C.

Cleveland, Ohio.

Editorial Department.

—— Dr. Holland's arraignment of the prize system, copied in this number from *Scribner's Monthly*, is as true as it is vigorous, though we can not unqualifiedly indorse every statement by which it is supported. The conviction is deepening in the minds of thoughtful teachers that the system of prizes, as practised in the colleges and universities of this country and Europe, is "evil and only evil and that continually." Its continuance is evidence of the power of custom and tradition. It takes but a few weeks to narrow the contest for the prize to two or three students, and it then ceases to be an incentive to the rest of the class. The competitors are, as a general rule, the very students who need no urging to secure close application to their studies. In many, if not in most cases, they lack physical vigor, and need to be induced to give *less* time to study and *more* to physical exercise. These points are so forcibly stated by Dr. Holland that nothing can well be added. The attempt to make athletes of students also receives a well-aimed blow. We believe that base-ball matches and rowing matches do much more harm than prizes for scholarship. We can not indorse Dr. Holland's statement that half of the schooling given to children who go to school, wonld be better than the whole. The great majority of our youth do not receive too much schooling; on the contrary, they receive too little. It may be that the schooling of many children is compressed into too few years, and it is certain that young children are kept in school too many hours each day. What is needed is better schooling, not less of it; and more attention should be given to the laws of health and physical development.

—— While we concede the great importance of a "health reform" in our schools and are anxious to assist in promoting it, we are not willing to share the folly of charging the schools with the many sins of the family and society. The truth is that very much of the ill health and physical infirmity which afflict the young, is due to causes wholly outside of the schools. When young girls are permitted to attend one or more socials, dancing clubs, and parties every week, with a severe physical strain and the loss of necessary sleep, it is hardly fair or wise to attribute their headaches and nervous debility to the demands of the teacher. Improper food, unventilated sleeping rooms, insufficient clothing, uncleanliness, and excessive labor or other physical exertion are the fruitful sources of "numerous ills which flesh is heir to." We believe that five fold more little children are injured by too continuous and excessive labor, than by over study. But it is not enough that our schools do not over-task the healthy and strong. Their requirements must also be adapted to that considerable class of children who enter school with feeble constitutions and comparatively little physical vigor. It seems to be a difficult matter to make our graded school courses flexible enough to accommodate

this class of pupils. They impose the same burdens on the strong and the weak. One cause of this state of things is the failure of parents to report cases of over study to teachers, and, if need be, protest against the wrong. This is rarely done. Supt. Philbrick, of Chicago, says that he can recall but one request in the past year for the relief of a child from study, while scores of complaints were made because children were not advanced more rapidly. Parents alone can make teachers aware of the extent of this evil, and, when this is done, a practical remedy for it will be found. As we said in our August issue, our schools must do more than guard against the overtasking of pupils. They must aim to increase their health and physical vigor. Increased attention must be given to physical education—in the true sense of the term.

—— In his inaugural as president of the Ohio Superintendents' Association, Supt. Stevenson, of Columbus, took the position that those who are personally connected with the management of public schools, know best the defects in the school laws, and are best qualified to prescribe the remedies. The *New York School Journal* calls this "a novel compliment to the teacher", and hopes that the wise suggestions will be borne in mind by the legislators of New York when they again essay to revise or amend the school laws. We are surprised that our contemporary should see any "peculiar novelty" in Mr. Stevenson's proposition. The teachers of Ohio have acted upon it for more than twenty years, and though legislators have not been very forward in seeking their advice, they have managed to have something to do with the drafting of the school law and most of its important amendments and revisions, as well as several bills which are not yet laws! It will be a "novel compliment" when legislators give due weight to the recommendations of teachers respecting the wants of the schools. This was certainly not done by the present Ohio House, when, on motion of a member, it struck out of the codified school bill the very provision which is demanded by all who have a personal knowledge of the condition and needs of our country schools—the vital feature of the bill. To make the influence of teachers more potent in shaping school legistion, Mr. Stevenson urged that superintendents and teachers should take an active part in the selection of men for the General Assembly, that those may be chosen who are conversant with school affairs and willing to promote the highest efficiency of the school system. "This," says the *Journal*, "is the broadest recognition of the teacher's real position in civilized communities, as well as a timely hint to educators everywhere to perform all the duties of the citizen."

—— In the admirable paper on "Methods of Teaching English in High Schools", read at Boston, Prof. March, of Lafayette College, Pa., made the following important suggestions: 1. Since good habits of speech in conversation are caught rather than taught, there should be times set apart for free conversation in the school-room, in which both teacher and pupils should take part, the former in the attitude of a critic. 2. The declamation of choice

ages of English literature is an important means to proper education. 3. e should be special exercises in regard to errors of speech, not such errors e comprehended by the word "slang", but errors in construction of sen- es. In regard to slang he remarked that too much study of slang made tudents too much masters of it. 4. Translating from other languages is r studying and practising the English language, and should be carefully oved as such. 5. In all studies that admit of it, the practice of teaching pics should be followed. The student should stand up and face his audi- or class, and speak to them upon the subject on which he is to recite. last was the most efficient means he knew of for giving power of con- d discourse. In the later courses of instruction, he recommended the ice of analyzing choice passages of the writings of eminent English ers, passages easy to be understood and interesting in themselves to be rred. As examples, Franklin's Autobiography and Irving's Sketch Book mentioned. Passages should be analyzed both as respects syntax and ology. Close and attentive reading in this way was far preferable to much ng from many authors, and the mode of instruction suggested was much r and quickened the thoughts of students more than the practice of beat- heir brains for original brilliancies of composition. Original composition however, indispensable, and short compositions of one kind or another d be produced *every day* by pupils, so that they might become accustomed iting off-hand, without special preparation. Such writing should, like s, be subject to criticism. Shakespeare was the writer upon whom criti- ower could be lavished to any extent, and the critical reading of his works ery instructive, both in regard to the perfections and the defects there to und.

— A CHARACTERISTIC feature of the proceedings of the Normal Depart- of the National Association, at the Boston meeting, was the prominence to one topic, to wit, *the true work of the normal school.* It was dis- d in four of the six papers read, and was the only subject considered in iscussions. Two opposite views were presented. The majority held that ormal school should give both academic and professional instruction; it should be a school both for the general education and professional ing of teachers. The minority, including School Commissioner Harvey, hio, and Prof. Williams, of Vermont, urged that teachers should receive scholastic education in the public schools, academies, and colleges, and the course of training in the normal school should be strictly professional. it was held, would not exclude the review of branches of study to illus- methods of teaching them, nor the teaching of special branches, not rally taught in other institutions, or receiving too little attention. It is us that these views require very different systems of normal schools. The demands the establishment of a sufficient number of normal schools to ate the teachers of the country as a distinct class—to take them from the entary schools and prepare them both scholastically and professionally for work, thus doing the work of the high school, the academy, and the col-

lege, and adding to this the necessary instruction and training in principles and methods of teaching. The second view places the normal school by the side of the high school, academy, and college, not to do their work, but to supplement it by professional instruction and training. The first view requires the would-be teacher to go to the normal school to be educated; the second to go to the normal school *after* he has received his general education. Which of these views is correct?

—— These discussions also revealed different views respecting the classes of normal schools needed. Some advocated that there should be one class of normal schools, with two courses of instruction, one to prepare teachers for higher schools, and one to prepare teachers for elementary schools—such schools as those now established in Massachusetts and several other States. Others held that there should be two grades of normal schools—one with extended courses for professional or life teachers, and one for temporary teachers, the latter to be local institutions, say one in each county. Those who held that normal schools should be purely professional in their instruction, urged that regular normal schools should not be established for temporary teachers, but that their professional training should be provided for in normal institutes. The mere statement of these different opinions is sufficient to show the importance of what is called "The Normal Problem." Its discussion is still in order. Dr. Mayo has the floor this month.

TEACHING AS A PROFESSION.

One of the first steps necessary to advance teaching to its true position as a profession, is its legal recognition. When a person is admitted to the practice of law or medicine, the admission is for life, and he is free to practice his profession wherever he can find employment. But teaching has no such professional standing. On the contrary, the law closes the doors of the schools of the country against teachers at stated periods, and requires their qualifications to be re-determined by examination. In the New England States, all teachers applying for schools are examined by a town committee. If ex-President Woolsey, of Yale, or ex President Hopkins, of Williams, should apply for a district school in his State, he would be obliged to show his fitness, unless treated exceptionally, by bounding New York, and defining a common fraction! In most of the States county superintendents or examiners are placed at the doors of the schools as sentinels to guard them against incompetent and unworthy teachers. It is made their duty to examine teachers and to issue to those found competent, certificates valid for a limited period—one to two years. Thus the great majority of the teachers of the country are put through the examining mill as often as once a year.

It is evident that these facts give teaching no legal standing as a profession. The position is held by too limited and uncertain a tenure. Until the law gives

a class of persons the unquestionable right to fill the teacher's office, teaching is not a profession in any true sense of the term.

The prevailing system of examining teachers is based on two facts: 1. Three fourths of the teachers of the country are in the business temporarily, and intend to leave it at the first favorable opportunity. It would be worse than a farce to give such persons the standing and dignity of professional teachers. 2. The qualifications of the great majority of teachers are too limited and inadequate to permit them to hold the right to teach by a life tenure. Nor can this difficulty be obviated by rigidly excluding those who are unqualified. This would leave the majority of school districts without teachers. The schools must be supplied with the best available ability and experience. This requires a careful examination of the applicants and the selection of the most competent. The limitation of the certificates granted affords an opportunity to make a better selection, and it also stimulates those thus limited in their right to teach, to improve their qualifications. Moreover, every system must guard against the negligence and incompetency of those who administer it. Many examiners discharge their duties in a very indifferent manner. The limited certificate enables their successors to correct their mistakes.

These and other considerations make it necessary to subject untried and inexperienced teachers to frequent examinations. This is necessary to protect the schools and also to force the unqualified to increase their attainments. The more searching these examinations are made the better. But is it not both desirable and possible to recognize those teachers whose attainments, experience, and success entitle them to a permanent admission into the profession?

There is neither necessity nor justice in requiring teachers who have passed with credit two or three critical examinations, and taught successfully for several years, to go before an examining board or committee every twelve month or twice twelve month, or whenever they cross a town or county line. What is needed is a system of examination wise enough to separate this class of teachers from the inexperienced, temporary, and unqualified, and give them the expressed authority of the State to teach anywhere within its borders. There are more than a thousand teachers in Ohio who ought to be thus honored. Many of these teachers intend to make teaching a life work, and have prepared themselves for it. They are the life and the honor of the schools, and should be rewarded with the standing of professional teachers.

Nor would it be difficult to devise such an examining system. We presented the outlines of a feasible plan in our issue for March, 1871. Professional certificates, valid for life, should be made attainable only by teachers who have received successively at least two certificates of high grade, and who have taught with the requisite success from three to five years. The applicants for them should be critically examined by a board composed of professional teachers, and the tests should be both scholastic and professional. At least one such examination should be held annually in each county, and the standard should be as nearly uniform as possible throughout the State.

It would be well, we think, to issue two classes of life certificates—one for elementary teachers, and one for teachers in high schools. The high-school

certificate might also state whether the holder is qualified to teach the classics. If deemed advisable, these professional certificates, issued by the State, might be made valid for five years, renewable for life on the holder's producing satisfactory evidence of continued success in teaching and progress in professional attainments. But we should much prefer to make provision for the simple record of these facts on the certificate at the close of five years. Such a record would give increased value to the certificate, and would be prized by all progressive teachers.

We are happy to add that Pennsylvania, California, Ohio, Illinois, and several other States have taken an important step in this direction. The school law of Pennsylvania provides for the issuing of three grades of certificates, called provisional, professional, and permanent, the last being issued by the State Superintendent to the holders of county professional certificates, on the recommendation of boards of school directors, the county superintendent, and a committee of professional teachers appointed by the county teachers' institute. We need not specify the conditions. The State Department has already issued 963 permanent certificates. Competent judges pronounce the California system the best in the country. It provides for the issuing of several grades of certificates, including life certificates, and the examining boards, state and county, are composed exclusively of professional teachers. Ohio, Illinois, and several other States each issue state certificates, valid during the life of the holder, but the system reaches too few teachers to meet fully the demands of the profession. It needs to be supplemented by some provision which will place the life certificate within the reach of worthy professional teachers in every county, whether employed in city or country schools.

We hope that this subject may be discussed in every State in the Union until teaching is legally recognized and honored as a profession. A united effort on the part of the leading teachers of the country is all that is needed to secure this great end.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—— Mr. Henkle calls our attention to two errors in the report of his remarks on page 328 of the September number. For "ten days" read *two* days, and for "Miller" read *Müller*.

—— We will send the first six numbers of the current volume of the Teacher—from January to June inclusive—to any address, postpaid, on receipt of *fifty cents*. We make this offer because we have a few extra sets of these numbers. It gives our July subscribers an opportunity to complete the volume for 1872.

—— The German American Teachers' Association held its annual meeting in Hoboken, N. J., Aug. 1, 2, and 3, 1872. We have not seen a report of the proceedings, but learn that there was a good attendance, and that the exercises were well sustained. Saturday was devoted to the discussion of sev-

eral practical topics in English. A delegation, consisting of Dr. Adolf Douai, of New Jersey, C. L. Hotze, of Ohio, and W. N. Hailman, of Kentucky, was appointed to attend the meeting of the National Educational Association in Boston.

—— Hon. J. W. Patterson, of New Hampshire, now United States Senator, has been offered the presidency of the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College, at a salary of $3,500. The institution will be opened next year.—— Prof. J. K. Hosmer, of Antioch College, has accepted the chair of English literature in the State University of Missouri.——Alexander Forbes, the present agent for the publishing house of Scribner, Armstrong & Co., New York, has accepted the principalship of the new Cleveland Normal School, to be opened in November, at a salary of $2,500. Mr. Forbes is one of the most successful teachers in Ohio, and he is heartily welcomed back to the profession.

—— Dr. Lowell Mason, the eminent music teacher and composer, died in Orange, N. J., August 11, 1872, in the 81st year of his age. It is estimated that near a million copies of his different books have been sold. No other teacher in America has done so much to improve instruction in music.—— Prof. D. C. Gilman, of Yale College, has been elected president of the State University of California.——Prof. Johonnet, of New York, has succeeded Prof. Beard as principal of the Missouri State Normal School at Warrensburg. ——Prof. J. C. Gilchrist, late of West Virginia, is principal of the Iowa Normal College, located at Cedar Rapids.——A. E. Warden, of Parkersburg, W. Va., is superintendent of the schools of Mason City, Ia., at a salary of $1,600. ——C. C. Creegan, of Nebraska, City, Neb., is president of the Wetmore Collegiate Institute, Irving, Kansas.——Prof. Walter H. Chase, late of Fairbault, Minn., is superintendent of the public schools of Madison, Wis.——Prof. C. O. Hurlbut has opened a Vocal Gymnasium in New York City.

Ohio.—The teachers' institutes held in Ohio this year have been the most successful series yet conducted in the State. The instruction has been more practical and valuable, and the teachers present have manifested an unusual interest, often rising to enthusiasm. An institute has been held in nearly every county, and, with few exceptions, with good attendance.

—— School Commissioner Harvey has visited many institutes since May last, rendering valuable assistance. He is at home in an institute and also in discussing the school question before the people. He has two very efficient clerks in the office, Messrs. Tibbitts and Senter, and the rooms were never so neatly and adequately furnished.

—— At the close of the Hamilton County Teachers' Institute held at Madisonville, Mr. U. T. Curran, one of the founders and most earnest friends of the association, was presented with a handsome gold watch and chain. The occasion was the announcement of his intention to leave the county to accept the superintendency of the Sandusky schools. The gift was accompanied with expressions of high appreciation and esteem by his many friends in the association. Mr. Curran did an excellent work in Hamilton county, and he has made a very promising beginning at Sandusky.

SPRINGFIELD.—The defalcation of the city treasurer left the board of education without a dollar with which to carry on the schools, and the board had no authority under the law to borrow money. But the members of the board resolved that the schools should run full time if they had to borrow the money on their own responsibility. All honor to such a board. The Legislature, when it meets, will assuredly legalize whatever reasonable thing may be done to avoid the turning of two thousand children into the street. Among the other recent commendable acts of the board is the providing of new furniture and apparatus, the erection of a fine school house on a good lot for the colored schools, and, more than these, the election of Mr. C. H. Evans as general superintendent. Having started the schools in their upward career, his three years' experience is an assurance that their progress will be more than continued. We trust that both the high school and the superintendency are now firmly established, and that the hostile spirit that once abolished them and put the schools behind those of other cities in the State, will not again manifest itself.

MT. UNION COLLEGE.—This institution, first organized in 1846 as a small academy with six students and one teacher, and chartered in 1858 with the title of Mt. Union College, has never been more prosperous than at present. The total number of students enrolled last year was 1,195, as follows: post graduates, 4; in college classes, 320; teachers' class, 194; preparatory class, 21; commercial department, 456; fine art, 34; music, 166—the largest attendance in the history of the institution. The whole number of different students from the origin of the college is 8,110, of whom 5,867 have taught public schools. Specimens to the value of about $30,000 were added, within the year, to the previously large and valuable collections in the museum. The chemical and philosophical apparatus were increased by the purchase of the entire sets which were formerly the property of Alliance College. About one thousand models have recently been obtained from the Patent Office at Washington. The endowment was increased the past year $60,000. The entire property of the College is valued at over $300,000. The college year includes a fall, spring, and summer term, thus allowing students an opportunity to teach during the winter season, without falling behind their classes. In addition to the two excellent boarding halls belonging to the college, another was opened for the accommodation of students at the beginning of the present term. The institution has three regular and five special courses of study; gives students entire liberty in the choice of studies; and offers equal privileges to both sexes. Its aim is to provide instruction in any useful study. President Hartshorn believes in devising liberal things in education, and his zeal and energy are equal to his faith.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held in Philadelphia, August 20-22, enrolled eleven hundred names—the largest enrollment in the history of the association. The local arrangements were very complete, the city committees having spared neither labor nor expense in making them. But two sessions were held daily, morning and evening, the afternoons being devoted to excursions, one to the Park, one on the

laware to Bristol, and one to Long Branch. The last was attended by over housand persons. The sessions were devoted almost entirely to addresses d papers, several of which were valuable. There was a brief discussion on chers' certificates and a more extended one on the co-education of sexes in nerican colleges. All the speakers, including Mrs. Lucretia Mott, who spoke th great acceptance, favored co education, and a resolution was unanimously ssed approving of the plan. Among the more noticeable addresses was one "The Schools of Europe", by Hon. B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut. The sociation voted that hereafter all papers be limited to fifteen minutes each, d all addresses to thirty minutes. The next meeting will be held in the y of Erie.

WEST VIRGINIA.—We have but little information respecting the progress of blic schools in the State at large. Few institutes have been held this year, d we judge there is a decline in active efforts to create an increased popular terest in public education. The new school journal has just appeared, and akes a good appearance. Bethany College is regaining its former prosperity. —The public schools of Wheeling have opened with a large attendance, ny of the rooms being crowded. The plan for providing German instruc- n is not working satisfactorily, and Supt. Williams recommends that instruc- n in German be begun in the primary grades. The amount of school money be received from the State is $11,068.15—an increase of $2,708.57 on the ount received last year.——The Wheeling Teachers' Association now holds gular meetings on the second Saturday of each month. By a rule of the ard all of the teachers are required to attend. The exercises consists of ss drills, select readings, essays, lectures, and discussions. The subject of ysical culture was discussed at the October meeting.

MARYLAND.—The new school law authorizes the establishment of a sufficient mber of schools for colored children, thus correcting a defect in the old law. e country schools throughout the State have been sustained on an average nine months a year since 1861, and male and female teachers receive equal r for equal work. A county superintendent is employed in every county, o gives his whole time to the work, at a salary of $1,000 to $1,500 a year. e law also makes provision for a public high school in each of the one hun- d and fifty elective districts of the State, if the people desire one, and it es legal sanction to teachers' institutes and associations, and district libra- s. The common schools are free and the colleges are practically free. This certainly good progress. The last Legislature failed to make an appropria- n for the erection of an adequate building for the excellent State Normal hool, in charge of Prof. Newell. It is hoped that this failure will be cor- ted when the next Legislature meets.

INDIANA.—The *School Journal* advocates the creation of the office of county perintendent, a system of township high schools, and an increase in the gth of the school term, as greatly needed improvements of the school sys- n, and several institutes have appointed committees to secure necessary endments to the school law.——The State Normal School, at Terre Haute,

has opened with an increased number of students. All the members of the last graduating class had good places offered them before their graduation.

EVANSVILLE.—We recently received from Mr. F. G. Steele, teacher of drawing in the public schools, a few of the drawing books of pupils in the high school, each having received only one year's instruction. The drawings showed skillful teaching, and faithful work and good progress on the part of the pupils. We have not made a careful comparison of the books to test their comparative merits, but notice the excellence of those belonging to E. L. Brown, Edward H. Gorse, and G. W. Ruston. The classes used Bartholomew's Drawing Books.

GEORGIA.—The progress of the school system is very much retarded by the want of funds. We learn from Commissioner Orr's late report to the Governor, that not a dollar of the debt due to teachers and school officers for last year's services, has been paid, and there is no money in the treasury to be used for the purpose. Of the $327,083.09 of school funds officially reported paid in prior to October 1st, 1871, $242,027.62 were used for general purposes and unsalable bonds substituted. The Commissioner earnestly recommends that lawfully issued bonds be immediately placed upon the market to restore the funds diverted, and pay the debts now due. It is hoped that the opening of the schools may be resumed by the beginning of another year, and that the good work may then be carried successfully forward. The schools of Savannah, Atlanta, Columbus, Augusta, and other cities, will be continued, we suppose, without interruption.

ILLINOIS.—The new school law requires teachers to be examined in the elements of natural philosophy, physiology, botany, and zoölogy, and, throughout the State, there is the hum of preparation to meet the new requirements. The law also provides for the appointment of two examiners, at the option of the county board, to assist the county superintendent in the examination of teachers; for the establishment of a high school in each township by the vote of the people; and directors are authorized to continue the schools nine months in a year, and are required to continue them five months. A uniformity of text-books in each school is to be strictly enforced, and text-books can not be changed oftener than once in four years. The salaries of teachers are made payable monthly.——Supt. Pickard, of Chicago, reports that the attendance in the schools has more than reached the ante-fire figure, and that the schools have never made more satisfactory promise. The spirit of the pupils is admirable, the necessity of coercive measures for their government having almost wholly disappeared. The zeal and devotion of the teachers are worthy of the highest praise.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

BERLIN.—A recent report of the Berlin schools for 1871, gives some interesting figures, and betrays the fact that one-ninth of the total population of Berlin attends school with military regularity. Over ninety-three thousand

scholars were reported for that year, the number of schools being two hundred and eighteen, and under the supervision of sixty-one male and one hundred and thirty-seven female teachers, and five hundred and sixty six ushers, or sub teachers. The salaries of these instructors, who are official personages, would amaze the young gentlemen and ladies who undertake schools during the winter season in our own rural districts. The highest pay for head-masters is about seven hundred dollars a year; the salaries range from this figure to three hundred dollars, which is the amount received by the junior ushers; while the female teachers receive stipends ranging from three hundred to two hundred and twenty-five, The Berlin schools are, furthermore, provided with two hundred sewing-teachers, having salaries of fifty-five dollars a year, and fifteen assistants at forty five dollars. It costs Berlin about half a million dollars a year to support her schools, which is cheap, especially when it is considered how thorough and substantial an education is thus imparted. It is interesting to be told that the parents of Berlin contributed, during 1871, about seven thousand dollars to the public treasury in the way of fines, while over fifteen hundred papas and mammas were imprisoned for not compelling Fritz and Gretchen to go to school, and keeping them there.—*Appleton's Journal.*

SWITZERLAND.—Switzerland presents, perhaps, the closest analogy to our own country in the organization of its system of public instruction. It is divided into twenty-two independent cantons, each of which manages its own internal policy after its own peculiar views; so that the educational systems of the several cantons differ materially, while the Federal Government, which unites them all, brings all into intimate connection, one with another, and facilitates improvement, as the institutions which are found to work best are gradually adopted by the different governments. With a few exceptions, education is compulsory throughout all the cantons for children between the ages of six and fourteen.—*Ed'l Record.*

——SECRETARY NORTHROP, of the Connecticut Board of Education, has formally accepted the call of the Japanese Government, and will go to Japan next year to organize the educational system of the country. His salary is to be $10,000 in gold. The recent announcement that he has resigned the position, is without foundation.

——MR. MORI, the Japanese minister at Washington, has decided to have the five Japanese girls, placed under his charge, educated by the Kindergarten system, and will place them under the supervision of Miss Loring, of Boston. There are now several hundred Japanese youth in this country receiving an education.

——THE Germans have established no university for the last half-century. Their plan is to strengthen those they have, rather than to found new ones.—— The contributions to the University of Strasburg are very liberal, and this ancient institution will soon be thoroughly reorganized.

BOOK NOTICES.

INDEPENDENT SIXTH READER: Containing a Complete Treatise on Elocution, both Scientific and Practical, illustrated with Diagrams, Select and Classified Readings and Recitations, with Copious Notes, and a Full Explanatory Index. By J. MADISON WATSON, Author of the National Readers and Spellers, etc. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1872.

This is the highest of the new National Independent Readers, and its publication completes the series. Part First, containing nearly eighty pages, is a very clear elucidation of the principles of elocution. The rules, whatever may be their value, are concisely stated, and the examples for illustration and class drill are numerous, varied, and appropriate. A novel feature is the introduction of diagrams, containing analyses of the topics presented. These are designed to be copied on the blackboard for use in reviews and class drills. Part Second contains one hundred well graded selections for reading exercises and recitations. Many of these selections are new, and the collection as a whole is excellent. The biographical and historical notes are full enough to be valuable. The entire mechanical execution is a credit to the publishers. The type is large and clear, and the few illustrations introduced are beautiful and pertinent. The book is worthy of the series, which is one of the best in the country.

HUMAN ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND HYGIENE. A Text-Book for Schools, Academies, Colleges, and Families. By JOSEPH C. MARTINDALE, M.D. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

Dr. Martindale has prepared a work of great excellence, and one well adapted to our higher schools. It is carefully written, and the statements are clear and well defined, and, with a good teacher, will serve admirably for a text book. The pictorial illustrations are generally good, and the book is well printed. Dr. Martindale shows great power of condensation, and the work contains a pretty complete epitome of the human system in its anatomical and physiological relations. Technical terms are used freely, and these will need careful explanation by a good teacher—one who thoroughly understands their etymology. The space devoted to hygiene is considerable, but this is the fashion in works of this kind at this time. Every author has his own notions of hygiene, and these greatly vary as determined by temperament, habits, education, climate, nationality, etc. We can remember the time when the use of bran in Graham bread was to save the world from a multitude of the "ills flesh is heir to", then an exclusive vegetable diet was urged, then the war on tea and coffee arose with the substitution of cold water. Other hygienic reformers make bathing their panacea, and, from their urgency in this matter, one might infer that man must soon retrogade in the Darwinian series, and be covered with scales and be endowed with fins. Fresh air (and much of it) is another panacea, and we are filled with pity and sadness at the thought of our fathers and grandfathers gasping out their seventy or eighty years of smothered life in their ill-ventilated houses and churches. Hygiene wil never be a science until there is applied to it the Baconian method of gathering first of all the facts in an honest and comprehensive way. We want generalizations not from single and isolated facts, and these facts interpreted by whims and fancies begotten of morbid states, but from all facts belonging to the same logical group. A few facts of a group may not be singled out to suit a predetermined theory. Every fact has its rights, but unfortunately it is only a few philosophic minds, and those of a high order, who acknowledge this and act upon it. The hygiene of Dr. Martindale is, on the whole, a very sensible hygiene, and his directions for the preservation of health are generally wise and good.

EMENTS OF PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. By R. T. Brown, M.D., Chemist-in-Chief Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This work, in its style of publication, is one of the most perfect and attractive t-books we have ever seen. The heavy, tinted paper, large, clear type, and utifully-engraved illustrations and beautiful binding leave nothing more to be ired from the taste of publisher or skill and art of engraver and printer. We not commend such efforts to make books beautiful too highly. A beautiful k is a perpetual feast.

Dr. Brown divides his work into two parts, devoting the first half to Physiology l the last to Hygiene. The facts of Physiology are ably presented with admir- e clearness of statement, and the pictorial illustrations are sufficiently numerous give to the pupil a distinct and vivid conception of every important part of the nan system. The use of technical terms is not discarded, as it should not be, pupils, from the first, should learn to call things by their right names. But this rk, and all similar works using scientific terms, must be taught by teachers who thoroughly explain them. For the want of such teachers Physiology in schools often of very little value, and the pupil obtains a vague smattering—that "little rning" which is "a dangerous thing." Hence the better the book the better teacher required.

The second part of Dr. Brown's book is devoted to Hygiene. We wish Hygiene e an ascertained science, as Physiology is, for, with all our boasted progress, the adage still holds good that "what's one man's meat is another man's poison." t Dr. Brown's suggestions relative to the preservation of health are generally ex- lent.

E SCIENCE OF WEALTH. A Manual of Political Economy, embracing the Laws f Trade, Currency and Finance, condensed and arranged for popular reading and se as a Text-Book. By AMASA WALKER, LL.D., late Lecturer on Public Econo- y, Amherst College. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

This is a condensation of Mr. Walker's large work, with the same title, published 1866. It is prepared from the sixth edition of the work, issued in 1871; and livided into five books, viz.: Definition, Production, Exchange, Distribution, l Consumption.

Mr. Walker boldly claims the following: "Political economy can recognize no ty interests, no national boundaries, no prescriptions, no assumed antagonisms ween the industries of different countries or between the different parties to pro- tion in the same country. Founded, like every true science, upon the observa- n of facts its purpose is to show what these facts teach. It pays no deference to opinions or the prejudices of mankind. Its only inquiry must be 'What is th'? assured that in the answer to that question will be found the highest inter- s of humanity."

There is much ability displayed in the work and all the author's views are set h with great clearness and force. On the great subject of a protective tariff he wers the question, "What is truth"? by denying fully the justness or fitness such a tariff, and argues the question with great fullness of detail. But we gine that all the believers in a protective tariff will still answer the same ques- n, "What is truth"? by reiteratiug their demands for such a tariff. With the y same facts before them both authors and statesmen come to conclusions dia- trically opposite. The reason of this may perhaps be found in Mr. Walker's in- ductory statement that political economy can "recognize no national boundaries, prescriptions, and no assumed antagonisms between the industries of different ntries", etc. His opponents claim that such antagonisms do exist and must be

recognised in legislation for the development of American industries. They assert, furthermore, that the Creator has given us vast national resources of coal, iron ore, salt, etc., etc., and we had better, as an independent nation, utilize these than simply exchange breadstuffs with the old world for all the manufactured articles we need. Here, we think, lies the point of difference between the free trade and tariff men. One class wishes simply wealth, and the other wishes an independent nation, great with the greatness of the multiplied material resources with which it has been endowed by the Creator.

In Part ii. of Book iii., under the head of "A Mixed Currency", Mr. Walker argues at great length, and with his wonted ability, against such a currency, and proposes a substitute for paper money in a more restricted paper currency which represents dollar for dollar of actual gold always on hand. Mr. Walker's views on the subject of labor and combinations of labor strike us as excellent and suited to the times. His views under the head of Consumption are also excellent. The work as a whole is a good one for all persons to read. As a text-book in schools or colleges it needs a teacher who is familiar with the whole subject of political economy, who can give pupils in a full and candid way both sides of the leading questions on which political economists differ so greatly.

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY WITH AN OUTLINE OF ASTRONOMY. By EDWARD P. JACKSON, A.M. Hartford, Conn: Published by the Stellar Tellurian Manufacturing Company.

There is a demand for a good text-book on Mathematical Geography. Although the main topics are discussed in a general way in most treatises on Astronomy, it is often desirable to present a more complete study of the "Astronomy of the Earth" The "Mathematical Geography" of this book contains much to recommend it. The teacher or pupil will find in it very fair solutions of many problems frequently considered difficult. In fact, if the supplements containing the Outline of Astronomy and the hybrid treatise on and advertisement of the Stellar Tellurian had been omitted, the book would find, and deservingly, a ready sale. Many of our most excellent teachers have no faith whatever in astronomical or geographical machines. Boards of Education are often induced to spend for these gaudy toys an amount of money which might be much more judiciously expended in other directions. The difficulty with this book, in the eyes of many, will be the doubt as to whether it is a text-book or an advertisement of a useless, expensive machine.

ARITHMETICAL EXAMPLES, MENTAL AND WRITTEN. Designed for Review and Test Exercises. By DANIEL W. FISH, A.M. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

This little book is written and published as a part of Robinson's Mathematical Series, but of course it may be used in connection with any other series or any text-book on the subject of arithmetic. It contains twenty five hundred examples, covering the whole ground of arithmetic as usually taught in the public schools. The first forty or fifty pages contain a collection of tables, mostly pertaining to weights and measures, including the Metric system and some very excellent tables of national and foreign currencies with comparisons of the same, also some additional tables of a miscellaneous character. Two editions are published, one without answers, for the use of the pupil, and another with answers at the end of the book, designed for the convenience of teachers. The book is gotten up handsomely and, accompanying some good text-book on arithmetic, would unquestionably do good service. The problems are classified as to subjects, rendering the book usable in classes of all grades.

THE

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PROFESSIONAL INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.*

The efficiency of any school system is acknowledged to be largely dependent upon the provision made in it for a supply of competent, trained teachers. The subject has long been discussed, but we have not yet arrived at conclusions satisfactory to every one as to the character of all the agencies we should employ to secure that supply. We have theorized, we have accumulated facts and data; but the normal instruction problem has not been solved.

To the theorist, in the seclusion of his study, this problem seems easy of solution. He reasons thus: A system of public schools, fostered and sustained by state patronage, should be a complete, consistent whole. Normal schools are essential to completeness and efficiency in such a system. Therefore, they should be established and sustained by the state, and teachers trained in them to whom the education of its youth should be entrusted.

We admit the force of this reasoning. The conclusion seems to be logically derivable from the premises. Certain facts, however, whose existence and importance should neither be denied nor ignored, may, on examination, force us to modify it somewhat, or, at least, by a few provisos and exceptions, to guard ourselves against its train of inferences.

Nearly one-third of our teachers leave the profession, each

* A paper read before the Normal Department of the National Educational Association at Boston, Aug. 7, 1872.

year, to engage in other employments. Of the many thousands required to supply our schools, a few hundreds only intend to become professional teachers. The expediency of establishing special training schools of high grade, with complete, exhaustive courses of study, for the large non-professional class, may be questioned. It will be difficult to convince tax-payers and finance committees that any scheme for the thorough professional training of even one-fourth of this class, is practicable or advisable. It will be equally difficult to demonstrate to them that the value of the product is greater than the cost of the production. They demand less expensive agencies than these, and it is our duty to look around us to see whether they can not be employed with excellent results.

The class of professional teachers, in our country, will long be comparatively small. A self-sacrificing, inadequately paid teacher can not look forward to the calm and ease of a pensioned old age as the reward for a lifetime devoted to the exacting and often thankless duties of his profession. The substantial prizes to be won, are few. Teaching, therefore, in the near future as in the past, will, in most cases, be a temporary calling, engaged in by young men while "getting under way", and by young ladies unable to find some other more attractive or more remunerative employment, and will be abandoned without regret at the first favorable opportunity. We may wish this were otherwise—we may deplore this constant thinning of our ranks—but the stern fact exists, nevertheless, and due importance should be attached to it in our theorizing upon normal instruction.

Many of these non-professional teachers are graduates of high schools, academies, seminaries, and colleges—most of them, however, undergraduates of these institutions, or such as have enjoyed no other educational advantages than those furnished by the country district school. Their scholastic attainments may be sufficient to enable them to pass any reasonable examination test; but very few of them, without some special training, will comprehend during their brief pedagogical career, the laws of physical and intellectual growth, and the philosophy which underlies all true methods of study and instruction. What agencies are best calculated to fit and prepare the largest number of these teachers, in the best manner possible, all circumstances considered, for their work?

In answering this question, we should not forget that our public and private schools are furnishing, or can furnish, all the in-

struction requisite or needful in the common as well as in the higher branches of study. If some of them are justly chargeable with a lack of thoroughness, if they are managed by those who are sometimes guilty of the heinous crime of using wrong methods, their pupils can be tested by searching, rigid examinations in the *what* of instruction before being received as pupils in professional training schools—in the *how* of instruction before being received as members of the teachers' fraternity. It is the duty of these schools to furnish all the academic instruction needful—it is our right to demand that it be thorough; but is it wise to recommend the establishment of special schools to duplicate their work, or to supply any real or fancied deficiency in it?

Private enterprise and state munificence have done much toward providing facilities for obtaining a certain amount of this desirable special training. So-called "normal schools" have been established by individuals and corporations for educational purposes in almost every state. With a single exception, these private institutions are in reality first or second class academies. As a general rule, pupils attend them to study the branches they expect to teach. Preparation for an examination in these branches absorbs most of their time and attention. Their anxiety is to get into a school-room; not to learn how to conduct themselves when there. Hence, in these schools, instruction in methods is made subordinate to the acquisition of scholastic attainments. Those having charge of them are sometimes men of liberal culture, and know how to teach. The efforts of such to supply an acknowledged educational want should be encouraged, even though their instruction may be limited, and, in a degree, superficial. Others, however, are men of a different character. They are the Ishmaelites of the profession. The best that can be said of them, is, that we may be thankful their schools are no worse than they are. We may congratulate ourselves that the common sense of the pupil is sometimes able to neutralize the baleful influence of a teacher's charlatanry.

The single exception referred to is an experiment as yet. Firmly and persistently, its managers refuse to admit any within its walls as pupils, who can not pass the ordeal of an examination in the common branches of an English education. Their time is not spent in conducting review recitations, or in teaching what can be as well taught elsewhere, but in making their pupils intelligent in matters immediately or remotely connected with all kinds of school work, and in teaching them how to base

their methods of instruction upon philosophical certainties. If the graduates of this school fail to succeed, it will be because a wrong-headed public opinion will force them into the ruts made by others, or because they will find that stemming the current of whim and prejudice is more difficult than floating lazily along with it.

Two kinds of professional training schools are sustained by states and municipal corporations:—city normal schools, designed to supply city public schools with teachers, and state normal schools, whose nominal purpose, at least, is to train those who are to teach country district schools, and the schools in the smaller towns and villages. It would be unwarrantable assurance on our part to assume to dictate a curriculum of studies for institutions conducted as private enterprises. Public sentiment alone must determine whether they are or are not worthy of patronage. They must stand or fall on their own merits. With state institutions, the case is far different. Their management is a proper subject for criticism. What shall be the character of the instruction given in them? Shall it be purely professional, or partly professional and partly academic?

Except as incidental in the presentation and elucidation of methods, there can be no necessity in city normal schools for direct academic instruction. Those who attend them, are graduates of schools of high grade. They should be familiar with the branches of study they have pursued. If they are not, the training school is no place for them. A review, even, of branches that should have been thoroughly mastered in grammar or high school, would seem to be a mere waste of time and effort. Knowing the educational wants and needs of the cities whose future teachers they are training, the managers of these normal schools should devote themselves exclusively to professional instruction. It would seem that no valid reason can be urged why they should do otherwise. It is not my purpose to define the exact character of this instruction, or to prescribe limits to its extent. I claim only that it shall be purely professional. If there are branches, however, which a teacher should pursue and others need not, or if certain branches should receive more attention from teachers than from the general student, such instruction in these branches as the necessities of the case may demand, will be of a professional character, because given in a professional spirit, and with a professional end in view.

It should neither be expected nor desired that these city nor-

mal schools should be cast in the same mould. The special wants of no two communities are precisely alike. The presiding genius of each city school system should have ideas of his own, should possess some originality. It is right, as it is inevitable, that the methods he approves should be recommended for adoption, and that the results he aims to secure, should not be considered as of trivial importance. Differing so widely as the most thoughtful educators do in views concerning the details of school management, and in the application as well as in regard to the utility of methods, it is not possible, even were it desirable, that uniformity should exist. Teachers will not all be employed in the cities where they receive their professional training. Wherever they go, however, their methods will be compared with those used by others; the influence of their training upon conduct and character will be compared with the influence of other and different training. The result will be an exodus of hobby-riders from the profession, and the substitution of rational, philosophical processes for theoretical makeshifts and experiments.

These city normal schools are established to supply the constant demand for competent teachers in all grades of our city public schools. It is expected that ere long they will supply this demand. If they do not, the sanguine hopes of their founders will not be realized, and most of them will be discontinued as costly, unsatisfactory experiments. The case is far different with state normal schools. As has been intimated, comparatively few of the non-professional class of teachers will voluntarily avail themselves of their advantages. The salaries they receive, the length of time they intend to devote to teaching, will not warrant the expenditure of time and money required to complete a thorough course of professional instruction. Why, then, advocate their establishment? Because they are needed as training institutions for those ambitious and persevering enough to aim at the highest excellence in the profession of their choice, and because they are indispensable to the existence of other agencies by which the non-professional class may be trained more or less thoroughly for their temporary calling.

There are those in every community to whom teaching is a delight. To them the arduous duties of the school-room are neither irksome nor repulsive. They commence their career as teachers in the district school; but they look beyond it to fields of labor in village, town, or city, where they hope to reap a rich

harvest of honor and reward. They know that success depends upon training—the winning of the race upon the preparation made before starting for the goal. With due deference to the opinions of those earnest men who differ in opinion from me in this matter, I must express my conviction that the state normal school should be conducted with special reference to the wants and needs of *this class*, and that one of its aims should be to increase its numbers. Its undergraduates should acquire elsewhere all necessary attainments in general scholarship. Its curriculum should include special studies, mainly, many of them useful, perhaps, to the parent and the citizen, but all of them essential to a knowledge of the science of pedagogics. Academic attainments should be supplemented by adding to them a more extended course of instruction in intellectual processes than the general student usually pursues, by showing how methods can be made to harmonize with these processes—in short, by pointing out the way by which these attainments may be most successfully acquired and made the means of individual development and culture.

There should be two courses of study in this institution—an elementary and an advanced course. The elementary course should provide for instruction in the best methods of teaching the common branches of an English education, and in the philosophy upon which these methods are founded; for practice in the use of methods; for instruction in the details of school classification and management, in educational history and legislation, and in the duties and responsibilities of teachers, patrons, and school officers. The advanced course should be thorough and complete. Those who finish it should be familiar with the development and practical workings of educational systems wherever established; should be able to criticise text books intelligently, and to teach others how to supply their deficiencies; should be acquainted with school architecture, that under their direction school-houses may be erected, convenient in arrangement and economical in construction—in brief, should be thoroughly prepared to perform all the duties required of a first-class teacher or superintendent.

The graduates from this institution will be employed as teachers in the better class of town, village, and country schools. Many of them will organize and teach normal classes, in term time or vacation, and repeat to others the lessons they have learned at their *alma mater*. Their work and its results will

illustrate the use of method in instruction and demonstate its value. Large numbers of non-professional teachers will be their pupils, will become imbued with their spirit, and use in school work such methods as they recommend. In this way, both directly and indirectly, the normal school will exert a wide and a healthy influence. If its managers be earnest, intelligent, enthusiastic educators, not impracticable theorizers, they will command and receive the respect and confidence of the profession. It will be a purely professional school, not an academy or college with a normal department attached. In due time, it will become the acknowledged head of our school system, controlling, stimulating, and directing all educational effort. May schools of this kind soon be established in every state of our common country.

It may be objected to this scheme, that the special, restricted course of study recommended will not be pursued, voluntarily, by a large number of pupils; that it leaves to chance or whim the professional training of more than nine-tenths of our teachers; and that no one, not a gradute from a normal school, should be permitted to teach. It may be that comparatively few will at first avail themselves of its advantages. As its merits become known, however, and its graduates achieve success as teachers, this number will increase rapidly. Such, at least, has been the case with the best special schools of other professions. So far as the normal school itself is concerned, the second objection has some force; but it should be remembered that the state is not restricted to the employment of a single agency in providing professional instruction for its teachers. Boards of institute managers may be appointed, whose duty it shall be to organize and provide for the conduct of normal institutes in different sections of each state, continuing them in session from six to ten weeks each year. County institutes may be made more efficient than they now are by increasing the length of their sessions, entrusting their management to experienced educators, and systematizing the work done in them. These agencies, when thoroughly organized, will place the means for professional instruction within the reach of every teacher in the land. It is not claimed that they will drive every form of inefficiency and incompetency out of all our school-rooms. It is admitted that their work will be limited, and, perhaps, somewhat superficial—necessarily so. They are, however, comparatively inexpensive. In the judgment of many thoughtful friends of our public school

system, they will do more real good to the non-professional class of teachers, all circumstances considered, than any other agencies we can recommend to legislators with even the faintest hopes that they will receive a moment's serious consideration.

Educational systems are growths, not creations. They are exponents of the social and political state, the moral, religious, and intellectual condition of nations and communities. It may be possible in America, at some future day, for the state to compel its teachers to pursue and complete a course of study in a normal school, even though the time they intend to devote to teaching may be short. Ere the dawn of that day we must outgrow or lay aside many of our national characteristics. The genius of our institutions, the temper of our people, considerations of policy and expediency, are all at present opposed to the enforcement of laws whose object is to drive men into or out of any profession. I trust the grace with which we shift from one employment to another—the teacher of to-day becoming the farmer, mechanic, lawyer, physician, or divine of to-morrow—will not be the first national peculiarity to disappear in the "good time coming." T. W. HARVEY.

PARAGRAPHS RELATING TO EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

SELECTED FROM JOWELL'S PLATO'S DIALOGUES.

CHILDREN.

For children are your riches; and upon their turning out well or ill will depend the whole order of their father's house.—*From Laches.*

SEEK THE BEST TEACHER.

I maintain, my friends, that every one of us should seek out the best teacher whom he can find, first for ourselves, and then for the youth, regardless of expense or anything.—*From Laches.*

BUYING KNOWLEDGE.

For there is far greater peril in buying knowledge, than in buying meat and drink: the one you purchase of the wholesale or retail dealer, and carry them away in other vessels, and before you receive them into the body as food, you may deposit

them at home and call in any experienced friend who knows what is to be eaten or drunken, and what not, and how much and when, and hence the danger of purchasing them is not so great; but when you buy the wares of knowledge you can not carry them away in another vessel; they have been sold to you, and you must take them into the soul and go your way, either greatly harmed or greatly benefited by the lesson.—*From Protagoras.*

A RARE GIFT.

Protagoras can not only make a good speech, but when he is asked a question, he can answer briefly; and when he asks he will wait and hear the answer; and this is a very rare gift.—*From Protagoras.*

PUNISHMENT REFORMATORY.

But he who desires to inflict rational punishment does not retaliate for a past wrong, for that which is done can not be undone, but he has regard to the future, and is desirous that the man who is punished, and he who sees him punished, may be deterred from doing wrong again. And he implies that virtue is capable of being taught; and he undoubtedly punishes for the sake of prevention.—*From Protagoras.*

IMPARTIALITY NOT EQUALITY.

Impartiality is not the same as equality, for both sides should be impartially heard, and yet an equal meed should not be assigned to both of them.—*From Protagoras.*

VALUE OF KNOWLEDGE.

Seeing that all men desire happiness, and happiness is gained by a use and a right use of the things of life, and the right use of them, and good fortune in the use of them, is given by knowledge, the inference is that every man ought by all means to try and make himself as wise as he can —*From Euthydemus.*

REMINISCENCE.

For all learning, and all inquiry, is but recollection.—*Meno.*

INTELLECTUAL FAITH.

Some things I have said of which I am not altogether confident. But that we shall be better and braver, and less helpless, if we think that we ought to inquire, than we should have been if we indulged in the idle fancy that there was no knowing and no use in searching after what we know not; that is a theme

upon which I am ready to fight, in word and deed, to the utmost of my power.—*Meno.*

EARLY CULTIVATION.

He is a good husbandman who takes care of the shoots first.—*Euthyphro.*

TRUTH.

I have no particular liking for anything but the truth.—*Euthyphro.*

VIRTUE AND RICHES.

I tell you that virtue is not given by money, but that from virtue come money and every other good of man, public as well as private.—*Apology.*

THE FATHER'S DUTY.

No man should bring children into the world who is unwilling to persevere to the end in their nurture and education.—*Crito.*

THE WISH OF THE WISE.

The wise man will want to be ever with him who is better than himself.—*Phædo.*

RULE FOR INVESTIGATING DIVINE THINGS.

For he should persevere until he has attained one of two things: either he should discover or learn the truth about them [divine things]; or, if this is impossible, I would have him take the best and most irrefragable of human notions, and let this be the raft upon which he sails through life—not without risk, as I admit, if he can not find some word of God which will most surely and safely carry him.—*Phædo.*

WHAT THE SOUL TAKES HENCE.

For the soul when on her progress to the world below takes nothing with her but nurture and education; which are indeed said greatly to benefit or greatly to injure the departed, at the very beginning of his pilgrimage in the other world.—*Phædo.*

LOVE OF LOGIC.

I am a great lover of these processes of division and generalization; they help me to speak and think. And if I see any man who is able to see unity and plurality in nature, him I follow, and walk in his steps as if he were a god.

MASTERY OF HIGH ARTS.

All the higher arts require much discussion and lofty contem-

plation of nature; this is the source of sublimity and perfect comprehensive power.

WRITTEN DISCOURSE UNSATISFYING.

I can not help feeling, Phædrus, that writing is unfortunately like painting; for the creations of the painter have the attitude of life, and yet if you ask them a question they preserve a solemn silence. And the same may be said of speeches. You would imagine that they had intelligence, but if you want to know anything, and put a question to one of them, the speaker always gives one unvarying answer. And when they have been once written down, they are tossed about anywhere among those who do not understand them. And they have no reticences or proprieties towards different classes of persons; and, if they are unjustly assailed or abused, their parent is needed to protect his offspring, for they can not protect or defend themselves.

SOCRATES' PRAYER TO PAN.

Beloved Pan, and all ye other gods who haunt this place, give me beauty in the inward soul; and may the outward and inward man be at one. May I reckon the wise to be the wealthy, and may I have such a quantity of gold as none but the temperate can carrry.

Cincinnati, Oct. 1872. W. H. VENABLE.

ORAL INSTUCTION.

I. *What oral instruction is.*

Literally taken, oral instruction is any instruction conveyed by words of mouth; that is, any information or statement made by the lips to the ear, in distinction from the same addressed to the eye by means of the written or printed page. Hence many regard all verbal communication to the pupil, whether it embodies explanation of something done or statement of something in extension of what a book says, or whether it is a formal lecture, as oral instruction in the sense which educators attach to the words. A conversation with a class, or a reading from a book, or an illustration thrown in, or even a story told, are in this view the varieties of oral instruction. In like manner a page repeated from memory, be it history or grammar or intellectual arithmetic, is an oral lesson on the part of the pupil. The

essence of it consists simply in *spoken* words rather than in *printed* words; in the form of address, or in the sense addressed, rather than in any skillful approach to the intellect by the avenue of readiest access. It is not *this* which may be claimed to be a "method" by itself, for this is an accompaniment and auxiliary of all methods. Oral instruction is not simply *talking* to, or with, a class.

Nor, again, is it simply giving the lessons of a text-book without the book. If teacher and pupil should both be able to dispense with all books in the class and to go through with the lesson as it is given them, it might not vary at all from the lesson of the book, and the only distinguishing feature of it would be the greater exercise of memory. This would be on the part of both a lesson remembered, for which the text-book would still furnish both the guide and the substance. This lesson would have an apparent advantage over one heard directly from the text-book, but except so far as independence of the book at the time of recitation goes, only an apparent advantage. Oral instruction, I understand, differs from other instruction in that it makes its own text-book, that is, its definitions, its statements of principles, its rules, all that would be put into a book; and in that it does this, not by giving them ready-made, but by leading to them by regular steps. It aims to persuade the pupil to use his own power by a skillful presentation of points adapted to awaken his curiosity. It assumes that the pupil may, within his range, investigate and discover truth and learn to make the formulas by which it is expressed, and that this is better than to give him formulas of any sort and tell him to use them for solving problems or for doing any part of his work. It is a process of unfolding, of development, rather than of furnishing the results of previous investigations made by others. It is original inquiry under guidance, inquiry at first hand rather than reception of truth at second hand; it is a path of discovery, rather than a subsequent account of what has been discovered. It is leading the child to do what all who make books ought to do, instead of telling him outright the results which others have already reached. It is a methodical presentation of truth, not ordered on the surface, but near enough to stimulate search, without requiring too severe toil or too deep delving. Step by step truth is unfolded, not communicated. Ray by ray light is let in that each point may be seen by itself, and that the whole may at length stand revealed, and that each part by the process

of discovery may be the learner's. In the nature of the case instruction which has this end as its leading idea must be *oral;* it must be for each learner a bringing out of his powers; it must be a direct personal contact of his own mind with the mind of the teacher, and through the medium of the subject which is under investigation.

II. *How it should be given.*

The method of giving oral instruction is implied in what has been said already. It deals with the concrete, with objects sensible for the most part, and seeks to interest first in things rather than in abstractions. The three steps are these: the proper presentation of a suitable object or of a subject of a lesson which may be readily referred to sensible objects; then, attention being arrested, and curiosity being excited, by skillful questioning, leading on to the particular discovery desired; and then the appropriate expression in correct, if not in exact language of the point discovered. In order that such a lesson may be of value, it should aim to make definite points, not simply to bring out anything that may happen in a random talk. These points should succeed each other according to a law of development, not as may happen; they should be of intrinsic value when made, and should be an introduction to others which are to follow. Much and varied knowledge is necessary on the part of the teacher, and the most careful preparation is imperative, that the lesson may be a unit in the child's education, and a factor in every succeeding lesson.

Skill in questioning is the great art in a good oral lesson, quickness to perceive what is adapted to each child's mental capacity, readiness to notice the direction of his thoughts, and to turn those thoughts with the channel of the lesson as arranged beforehand, as well as much tact in accepting what in an answer is right, and through this part reaching the whole answer desired; in a word, sympathy with the working of children's minds is indispensable.

The lesson is based upon what the child already knows—that is the starting point; the end is something not known; the means are the sensible objects used or referred to, and the teacher's questioning. The ability to perceive them and the power of getting new impressions through the senses are made use of; and when these impressions are clear and definite the ability to compare them and to draw inferences, and so to form correct judgments is, cultivated. It is the scientific process: observation,

essence of it consists simply in *spoken* words rather than in *printed* words; in the form of address, or in the sense addressed, rather than in any skillful approach to the intellect by the avenue of readiest access. It is not *this* which may be claimed to be a "method" by itself, for this is an accompaniment and auxiliary of all methods. Oral instruction is not simply *talking* to, or with, a class.

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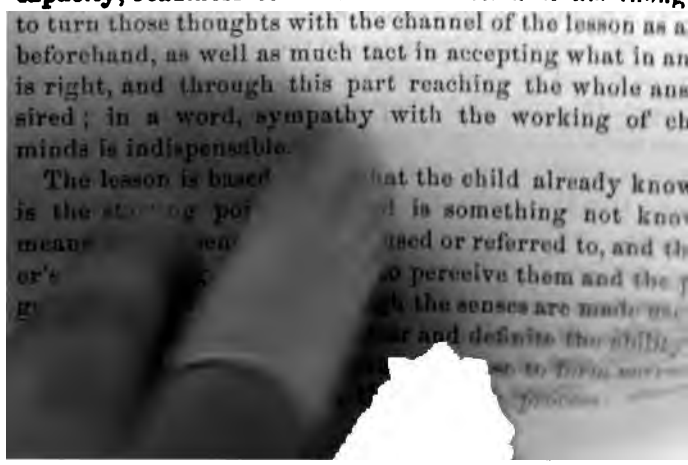
of discovery may be the learner's. In the nature of the case instruction which has this end as its leading idea must be *oral;* it must be for each learner a bringing out of his powers; it must be a direct personal contact of his own mind with the mind of the teacher, and through the medium of the subject which is under investigation.

II. *How it should be given.*

The method of giving oral instruction is implied in what has been said already. It deals with the concrete, with objects sensible for the most part, and seeks to interest first in things rather than in abstractions. The three steps are these: the proper presentation of a suitable object or of a subject of a lesson which may be readily referred to sensible objects; then, attention being arrested, and curiosity being excited, by skillful questioning, leading on to the particular discovery desired; and then the appropriate expression in correct, if not in exact language of the point discovered. In order that such a lesson may be of value, it should aim to make definite points, not simply to bring out anything that may happen in a random talk. These points should succeed each other according to a law of development, not as may happen; they should be of intrinsic value when made, and should be an introduction to others which are to follow. Much and varied knowledge is necessary on the part of the teacher, and the most careful preparation is imperative, that the lesson may be a unit in the child's education, and a factor in every succeeding lesson.

Skill in questioning is the great art in a good oral lesson, quickness to perceive what is adapted to each child's mental capacity, readiness to notice the direction of his thoughts, and to turn those thoughts with the channel of the lesson as arranged beforehand, as well as much tact in accepting what in an answer is right, and through this part reaching the whole answer desired; in a word, sympathy with the working of children's minds is indispensible.



reflection, classification; and the result is knowledge which has been reached by the child's own exertion, and which consequently has for him the freshness and reality of actual discovery. This is nature's method—the idea first, and through the senses for the most part; then the term, though it is a technical one; then the accurate expression of the judgment in a correct form of speech.

Of course, an oral lesson may be of no more value than a lesson recited memoriter from a book. It may degenerate into mere amusement and mental dissipation; it may become senseless twaddle. But if the teacher has knowledge, fixes her mind on the goal of the lesson, promptly rejects all answers and questions aside from the path, holds the class up to the truth or fact sought after, the oral lesson is the embodiment of both good sense and skill. It is by no means easier for either party than another form of lesson, nor is it more likely to run into useless and frivolous waste of time. The child always and necessarily begins his education in this way, and oral lessons in school are but a systematized continuation of first lessons in the nursery or on the play ground.

III. *Some advantages of such instruction.*

This sort of instruction brings the mind of the learner into close and living contact with another mind, instead of into contact with a printed page; and as iron sharpens iron, so this contact of mind with mind develops power. Books to children—books of knowledge, at least,—are dull and senseless things, but the object put into his hands, the voice of the teacher, her animation of manner and manifest interest in him and the lesson are incentives that he can not resist.

Again, this method of instruction must cultivate habits of observation. Children are taught to use their senses, are made to know by daily use of them, and by daily accessions of knowledge through this use, that they are indeed the inlets of the mind; that sense-knowledge is the first in time of all knowledge, and is the condition of all other knowledge; and we, who are older, know that these senses are for all our lives the medium of communication with the outer world, without which all the products of "internal consciousness" would be of little worth.

Again, this method of teaching deals with the minds of individual pupils. Truth is presented to each, so that each has power to grasp it. If one question or illustration does not produce the affect desired, another may be tried, and yet another,

till the form of it which each may comprehend is found. Thus no one is left uninstructed; no mind is left unawakened. The teacher feels bound, as he has the opportunity, to bring the lesson home to each mind; he must grasp it. Each effort made with another, and each partial or full response of that other, is so far an approach to the dullest mind in the class, and often the turn of expression a child will use is the "open sesame" to his mind.

And once again, the process by which knowledge is gained is as valuable as the knowledge itself, because it is one he will repeat in all his future inquiries after truth. Book lessons will be forgotten, but this way of getting at truth for himself will be remembered. It is not something to be dropped when he leaves school, but an instrument to be with him always. Investigation and inquiry will take the same general form in whatever direction he may seek for truth. Finding out for himself under guidance when a child, will lead him and enable him to make independent observations and sound reflections when a man.

Such, very briefly and imperfectly, is our idea of oral instruction. Without being at all an extremist, or wishing to put textbooks out of school, we think that for children they are used far too much. We think that it should in nearly, if not quite all grades of our public schools, be substituted in part for instruction from books, and that both teacher and pupil would be benefited by such substitution. This work should be most carefully studied and most carefully done; otherwise it will be worthless, and the method will be brought into disrepute.

H. B. Buckham.

"LEARN HIM TO READ."

Is there a reason for the tendency to use *learn* for teach?

We speak of a *learned* man, using *learned* in the sense of *educated*, thus indicating that in this case *learned* is from the causative verb *learn*, that is, *teach*. Bosworth, in his Anglo-Saxon and English Dictionary, gives "teach, instruct, inform, etc.," as the definition of *læran* and "learn and read" as the definition of *leornian*. It seems that these two allied words, *læran* and *leornian*, which are differentiated in Anglo-Saxon, have lost their differentiation in modern English, the word *learn* doing the duty of both.

The following examples show that *læran* has been retained in English.

In the quotations from Langland's Vision of Piers the Plowman, I give the text as found in Skeat's edition. For want of the proper character for the rune used in Anglo-Saxon for *th*, as in *thin*, I use *th*. This runic character in the alphabet was called by the name of *thorn*. All the twenty-four letters of the alphabet except three are of Roman origin. I also use *y* for a peculiar semi-Saxon character, which stands at the beginning of a word for "y" and in the middle of a word for the guttural "gh." It should be stated that Langland uses "thorn" generally not for the aspirate "th", but for the subvocal "th", the aspirate being represented by "th"

Lereth it *th*is lewde men· for lettred men it knowen,
*Th*at treuthe is tresore· *th*e trieth on er*th*e.—*Passus* i, ll 134–5.

Teach it to these unlearned men, for lettered men know it,
That truth is treasure, the choicest on earth.

Skeat says:

"To *lere* is to teach, *lerne* to learn. *Lerne* sometimes also means *to teach*, as in prov. English, but *lere* is never to *learn*."

This I trowe be treuthe· who can teche *th*e better,
Loke *th*ow suffre hym to sey· and sithen *lere* it after.—*P.* i, ll. 143–4.

And *lered* it Moises for *th*e leuest *th*ing· and moste like to heuene.—*P.* i, l. 149.

For-*th*i I *lere* yow, lordes· leue*th* such werkes,
To writen in wyndowes· of yowre wel dedes.—*P.* iii, ll. 69–70.

And *lereth* hem leccherye· that loueth hire yiftes.—*P.* iii, l. 125.

If ye lyuen as ye *leren* vs· we shal leue yow *th*e bettere.—*P.* v, l. 45.

How *th*ou *lernest th*e peple· *th*e *lered* and *th*e lewede.—*P.* iv, l. 11.

For *th*e and for many mo· *th*at man shal yif a rekenynge,
What he *lerned* yow in lente· leue *th*ow none other.—*P.* v, ll, 301–2.

'What' quod *th*e prest to perkyn· 'peter! as me *th*inketh,
*Th*ow art lettred a litel· who *lerned th*e on boke?'—*P.* vii, ll .130–1.

Learn, from *læran*, seems to be more common with Langland than *learn*, from *leornian*.

He would *learn*
The lion stoop to him in lowly wise,
A lesson hard.—*Spenser's Faerie Queen.*

My testimonies that I shall learn them.—*Book of Common Prayer, Psalms* cxxxii, 13.

Besides, the king set in a course so right
Which I for him laboriously had tract
(Who till I *learn'd* him, had not known his might.)
Drayton. The Legend of Thomas Cromwell.

And therfore, faire Pertelote so deere,
By suche ensamples olde maistow *leere*
That no man scholde be so recheles
Of dremes, for I say the douteles,
That many a dream ful sore is for to drede.
Chaucer. The Nonne Prestes Tale (Morris's text).

* * * * * Have I not been
Thy pupil long? Hast thou not *learned* me how
To make perfumes? * * * *
Shakespeare. Cymbeline, Act. I, Sc vi.

You taught me language; and my profit on't
Is, I know how to curse: the red plague rid you,
For *learning* me your language!—*Tempest*, Act I, Sc. ii.

A thousand more mischance than this one
Have *learn'd* me how to brook this patiently.
The Two Gentlemen of Verona, Act. V, Sc. iij.

These examples show that the use of *learn* in the sense of *teach* is a time-honored practice, and every one observes almost daily instances of this practice, notwithstanding the literary effort to restrict *learn* to only one of its derivations, namely, *leornian*.

W. D. HENKLE.

Salem, Ohio, Oct., 1872.

THE GERMAN GYMNASIA.

Armed with some half dozen recommendations and a special request from the Consul, we anticipated no difficulty in gaining admittance to the "Kreutz Schule", which is known as the principal gymnasium in Dresden. The Rector took our papers, looked over them, then very coolly told us that visitors were in no cases allowed to attend the recitations. At Munich we procured a permit from the Superintendent of Education, which gained us admission to the excellent gymnasium of that city, and also to the public schools.

The German gymnasia have their origin in the cloister schools of the middle ages. As science developed, they gradually enlarged their course, and as the demand for general and secular education began to assert its influence, the cloister or religious schools were changed into the gymnasia. They hold an intermediate place between the common schools and the universities, although independent as the universities. They draw their support partly from tuition, but mainly from the State.

In mathematics and sciences they rank with our best high schools; in languages, both modern and ancient, in history and belles-lettres, they hold equal rank with our best colleges. We attended the Rector's recitation in Latin, and found the students not only translating with ease, elegance, and rapidity, but they were also able to use it as the class-room language. The slightest mistake was criticised with severity.

Students are admitted to the gymnasia on examination, at twelve or fourteen years of age. Six and eight years of strict discipline and hard study are required to complete the course. Each student studies at home, and spends, on an average, six hours per day in the recitation-room. Instruction is given partly by lectures and partly by questions. Students take copious notes of lectures, and are questioned on their notes at the next lesson.

The German student takes a greater number of studies at the same time than American students, although in some studies he will have but one, two, or three recitations per week. They claim for this system the advantage that every student is prepared to pass an examination in all the studies of the course, at the completion of it.

The object of the gymnasia is two fold. The first is to create a love for knowledge that will inspire the student to greater attainments, and lift him to higher realms of investigation; to give him mental power and capability not only to meet the requirements of active life, but also to take hold of and comprehend the higher studies and pursuits of man. The second object is to prepare students for the universities. A student having finished the gymnasium course, has reached that point of development at which he can choose understandingly his profession. He can then decide which of the four courses—law, medicine, philosophy, or theology—will be most agreeable to his tastes.

C. W. OAKES.

Bellefontaine, Ohio.

——THERE is no surer sign of a lack of intelligence and refinement in a neighborhood than a poor, dilapidated school-house, with its benches hacked with knives and stained with ink, its floors covered with dirt, and its doors and windows open to sun and rain and snow.

Editorial Department.

—— One of the most intelligent and influential business men of Cleveland, H. B. Tuttle, Esq., has written us, expressing gratification in seeing in this journal such a hearty advocacy of the importance of the teaching of science in public schools. He thinks that the opposition to such instruction, arising from the force of custom and usage, will disappear as soon as parents know its useful office in education, and the advantage which it will give the child in after life in business and professional pursuits. The extension of the course of study in natural science in the colleges and universities he attributes to a healthy and wise demand on the part of the people. "I do not write", he adds, "expecting to add any new thought, but because I wish you to feel sure that you are supported by large numbers, probably a very large majority of the business men of our age, in urging this improvement in education."

—— The present year has witnessed an increase of enterprise in educational journalism. *The School*, Ypsilanti, Mich., and the *Home and School*, Louisville, Ky., were started in January last; the *Southern Educational Monthly*, Baltimore, Md., in June; the *Nebraska Teacher*, Beatrice, Neb., in July; and the *West Virginia Educational Journal*, Parkersburg, W. Va., in October. Two new journals are to be started in January next: *The Chicago Teacher*, to be conducted by Messrs. Baker and Mahony, and an educational journal to be published by the New York State Teachers' Association. There has also been a marked improvement in the management of nearly all the older educational journals. The *Iowa School Journal* and the *California Teacher* show, perhaps, the most noticeable improvement in editorial conduct. The former journal has passed into good hands, and is now free of petty bickering, and the latter, for several years past one of the poorest in the country, has not only passed into more competent hands, but has had a big "lift" in the form of a state subscription for 2,800 copies, at $1.50 a copy! The *Connecticut School Journal* is well edited, but we do not like its present form as well as that of the previous volume. Several of the educational journals not named above, are among the very best in the country.

—— Hon. B. G. Northrop, Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Education, recently published a paper of some twenty pages on "Obligatory Education", in which he strongly advocates the compulsory system. He states that his former objections to obligatory attendance were fully removed by observations, recently made in Europe, and especially in Germany, where the people universally favor the law. He says that "attendance there is voluntary in fact", that "nobody seems to think of coercion", but, at the same time, he

upon which I am ready to fight, in word and deed, to the utmost of my power.—*Meno.*

EARLY CULTIVATION.

He is a good husbandman who takes care of the shoots first.—*Euthyphro.*

TRUTH.

I have no particular liking for anything but the truth.—*Euthyphro.*

VIRTUE AND RICHES.

I tell you that virtue is not given by money, but that from virtue come money and every other good of man, public as well as private.—*Apology.*

THE FATHER'S DUTY.

No man should bring children into the world who is unwilling to persevere to the end in their nurture and education.—*Crito.*

THE WISH OF THE WISE.

The wise man will want to be ever with him who is better than himself.—*Phædo.*

RULE FOR INVESTIGATING DIVINE THINGS.

For he should persevere until he has attained one of two things: either he should discover or learn the truth about them [divine things]; or, if this is impossible, I would have him take the best and most irrefragable of human notions, and let this be the raft upon which he sails through life—not without risk, as I admit, if he can not find some word of God which will most surely and safely carry him.—*Phædo.*

WHAT THE SOUL TAKES HENCE.

For the soul when on her progress to the world below takes nothing with her but nurture and education; which are indeed said greatly to benefit or greatly to injure the departed, at the very beginning of his pilgrimage in the other world.—*Phædo.*

LOVE OF LOGIC.

I am a great lover of these processes of division and generalization; they help me to speak and think. And if I see any man who is able to see unity and plurality in nature, him I follow, and walk in his steps as if he were a god.

MASTERY OF HIGH ARTS.

All the higher arts require much discussion and lofty contem-

ɔlation of nature; this is the source of sublimity and perfect ɔomprehensive power.

WRITTEN DISCOURSE UNSATISFYING.

I can not help feeling, Phædrus, that writing is unfortunately like painting; for the creations of the painter have the attitude of life, and yet if you ask them a question they preserve a solemn silence. And the same may be said of speeches. You would imagine that they had intelligence, but if you want to know anything, and put a question to one of them, the speaker always gives one unvarying answer. And when they have been once written down, they are tossed about anywhere among those who do not understand them. And they have no reticences or proprieties towards different classes of persons; and, if they are unjustly assailed or abused, their parent is needed to protect his offspring, for they can not protect or defend themselves.

SOCRATES' PRAYER TO PAN.

Beloved Pan, and all ye other gods who haunt this place, give me beauty in the inward soul; and may the outward and inward man be at one. May I reckon the wise to be the wealthy, and may I have such a quantity of gold as none but the temperate can carrry.

Cincinnati, Oct. 1872. W. H. VENABLE.

ORAL INSTUCTION.

I. *What oral instruction is.*

Literally taken, oral instruction is any instruction conveyed by words of mouth; that is, any information or statement made by the lips to the ear, in distinction from the same addressed to the eye by means of the written or printed page. Hence many regard all verbal communication to the pupil, whether it embodies explanation of something done or statement of something in extension of what a book says, or whether it is a formal lecture, as oral instruction in the sense which educators attach to the words. A conversation with a class, or a reading from a book, or an illustration thrown in, or even a story told, are in this view the varieties of oral instruction. In like manner a page repeated from memory, be it history or grammar or intellectual arithmetic, is an oral lesson on the part of the pupil. The

essence of it consists simply in *spoken* words rather than in *printed* words; in the form of address, or in the sense addressed, rather than in any skillful approach to the intellect by the avenue of readiest access. It is not *this* which may be claimed to be a "method" by itself, for this is an accompaniment and auxiliary of all methods. Oral instruction is not simply *talking* to, or with, a class.

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of discovery may be the learner's. In the nature of the case instruction which has this end as its leading idea must be *oral;* it must be for each learner a bringing out of his powers; it must be a direct personal contact of his own mind with the mind of the teacher, and through the medium of the subject which is under investigation.

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The lesson is based upon what the child already knows—that is the starting point; the end is something not known; the means are the sensible objects used or referred to, and the teacher's questioning. The ability to perceive them and the power of getting new impressions through the senses are made use of; and when these impressions are clear and definite the ability to compare them and to draw inferences, and so to form correct judgments is, cultivated. It is the scientific process: observation,

reflection, classification; and the result is knowledge which has been reached by the child's own exertion, and which consequently has for him the freshness and reality of actual discovery. This is nature's method—the idea first, and through the senses for the most part; then the term, though it is a technical one; then the accurate expression of the judgment in a correct form of speech.

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And *lered* it Moises for *th*e leuest *th*ing· and moste like to heuene.—*P.* i, l. 149.

For-*th*i I *lere* yow, lordes· leue*th* such werkes,
To writen in wyndowes· of yowre wel dedes.—*P.* iii, ll. 69–70.

And *lereth* hem leccherye· that loueth hire yiftes.—*P.* iii, l. 125.

If ye lyuen as ye *leren* vs· we shal leue yow *th*e bettere.—*P.* v, l. 45.

How *th*ou *lernest th*e peple· *th*e *lered* and *th*e lewede.—*P.* iv, l. 11.

For *th*e and for many mo· *th*at man shal yif a rekenynge,
What he *lerned* yow in lente· leue *th*ow none other.—*P.* v, ll, 301–2.

'What' quod *th*e prest to perkyn· 'peter! as me *th*inketh,
*Th*ow art lettred a litel· who *lerned th*e on boke?'—*P.* vii, ll .130–1.

Learn, from *læran*, seems to be more common with Langland than *learn*, from *leornian*.

He would *learn*
The lion stoop to him in lowly wise,
A lesson hard.—*Spenser's Faerie Queen.*

My testimonies that I shall learn them.—*Book of Common Prayer, Psalms* cxxxii, 13.

Besides, the king set in a course so right
Which I for him laboriously had tract
(Who till I *learn'd* him, had not known his might.)
Drayton. The Legend of Thomas Cromwell.

And therfore, faire Pertelote so deere,
By suche ensamples olde maistow *leere*
That no man scholde be so recheles
Of dremes, for I say the douteles,
That many a dream ful sore is for to drede.
Chaucer. The Nonne Prestes Tale (Morris's text).

* * * * * Have I not been
Thy pupil long? Hast thou not *learned* me how
To make perfumes? * * * *
Shakespeare. Cymbeline, Act. I, Sc vi.

You taught me language; and my profit on't
Is, I know how to curse: the red plague rid you,
For *learning* me your language!—*Tempest*, Act I, Sc. ii.

A thousand more mischance than this one
Have *learn'd* me how to brook this patiently.
The Two Gentlemen of Verona, Act. V, Sc. iij.

These examples show that the use of *learn* in the sense of *teach* is a time-honored practice, and every one observes almost daily instances of this practice, notwithstanding the literary effort to restrict *learn* to only one of its derivations, namely, *leornian*.

W. D. HENKLE.

Salem, Ohio, Oct., 1872.

THE GERMAN GYMNASIA.

Armed with some half dozen recommendations and a special request from the Consul, we anticipated no difficulty in gaining admittance to the "Kreutz Schule", which is known as the principal gymnasium in Dresden. The Rector took our papers, looked over them, then very coolly told us that visitors were in no cases allowed to attend the recitations. At Munich we procured a permit from the Superintendent of Education, which gained us admission to the excellent gymnasium of that city, and also to the public schools.

The German gymnasia have their origin in the cloister schools of the middle ages. As science developed, they gradually enlarged their course, and as the demand for general and secular education began to assert its influence, the cloister or religious schools were changed into the gymnasia. They hold an intermediate place between the common schools and the universities, although independent as the universities. They draw their support partly from tuition, but mainly from the State.

In mathematics and sciences they rank with our best high schools; in languages, both modern and ancient, in history and belles-lettres, they hold equal rank with our best colleges. We attended the Rector's recitation in Latin, and found the students not only translating with ease, elegance, and rapidity, but they were also able to use it as the class-room language. The slightest mistake was criticised with severity.

Students are admitted to the gymnasia on examination, at twelve or fourteen years of age. Six and eight years of strict discipline and hard study are required to complete the course. Each student studies at home, and spends, on an average, six hours per day in the recitation-room. Instruction is given partly by lectures and partly by questions. Students take copious notes of lectures, and are questioned on their notes at the next lesson.

The German student takes a greater number of studies at the same time than American students, although in some studies he will have but one, two, or three recitations per week. They claim for this system the advantage that every student is prepared to pass an examination in all the studies of the course, at the completion of it.

The object of the gymnasia is two fold. The first is to create a love for knowledge that will inspire the student to greater attainments, and lift him to higher realms of investigation; to give him mental power and capability not only to meet the requirements of active life, but also to take hold of and comprehend the higher studies and pursuits of man. The second object is to prepare students for the universities. A student having finished the gymnasium course, has reached that point of development at which he can choose understandingly his profession. He can then decide which of the four courses—law, medicine, philosophy, or theology—will be most agreeable to his tastes.

C. W. Oakes.

Bellefontaine, Ohio.

——There is no surer sign of a lack of intelligence and refinement in a neighborhood than a poor, dilapidated school-house, with its benches hacked with knives and stained with ink, its floors covered with dirt, and its doors and windows open to sun and rain and snow.

Editorial Department.

—— One of the most intelligent and influential business men of Cleveland, H. B. Tuttle, Esq., has written us, expressing gratification in seeing in this journal such a hearty advocacy of the importance of the teaching of science in public schools. He thinks that the opposition to such instruction, arising from the force of custom and usage, will disappear as soon as parents know its useful office in education, and the advantage which it will give the child in after life in business and professional pursuits. The extension of the course of study in natural science in the colleges and universities he attributes to a healthy and wise demand on the part of the people. "I do not write", he adds, "expecting to add any new thought, but because I wish you to feel sure that you are supported by large numbers, probably a very large majority of the business men of our age, in urging this improvement in education."

—— The present year has witnessed an increase of enterprise in educational journalism. *The School*, Ypsilanti, Mich., and the *Home and School*, Louisville, Ky., were started in January last; the *Southern Educational Monthly*, Baltimore, Md., in June; the *Nebraska Teacher*, Beatrice, Neb., in July; and the *West Virginia Educational Journal*, Parkersburg, W. Va., in October. Two new journals are to be started in January next: *The Chicago Teacher*, to be conducted by Messrs. Baker and Mahony, and an educational journal to be published by the New York State Teachers' Association. There has also been a marked improvement in the management of nearly all the older educational journals. The *Iowa School Journal* and the *California Teacher* show, perhaps, the most noticeable improvement in editorial conduct. The former journal has passed into good hands, and is now free of petty bickering, and the latter, for several years past one of the poorest in the country, has not only passed into more competent hands, but has had a big "lift" in the form of a state subscription for 2,800 copies, at $1.50 a copy! The *Connecticut School Journal* is well edited, but we do not like its present form as well as that of the previous volume. Several of the educational journals not named above, are among the very best in the country.

—— Hon. B. G. Northrop, Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Education, recently published a paper of some twenty pages on "Obligatory Education", in which he strongly advocates the compulsory system. He states that his former objections to obligatory attendance were fully removed by observations, recently made in Europe, and especially in Germany, where the people universally favor the law. He says that "attendance there is voluntary in fact", that "nobody seems to think of coercion", but, at the same time, he

claims that coercive attendance has given Germany universal education—a fact due, we suppose, to the influence of the law in creating the public sentiment which makes its enforcement unnecessary. How is the fact of this influence determined? Mr. Northrop answers *nine* objections to a compulsory law in Connecticut, and gives several reasons in favor of such a law. A copy of this pamphlet can doubtless be obtained by addressing Mr. Northrop, at New Haven, and inclosing a three-cent postage stamp. The other side of this question is presented in the November number of the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, in the form of a reply by Supt. Wickersham to the paper on "Compulsory School Attendance", read before the National Educational Association at Boston, by Supt. Bateman, of Illinois. In this reply Mr. Wickersham argues (1) that "such compulsory laws have never been enforced in this country"; (2) that "compulsory laws, if enforced, can not cure the evil of non-attendance"; and (3) that "voluntary is much better than forced attendance, even if the latter could be so managed as to effect its object." Each of these objections is ably presented.

—— WALTER SMITH affirms in his new and very valuable work on "Art Education" (James R. Osgood & Co., Boston), that art study is as equally adapted to the occupations of women as men, while her sensitive touch and quick perception and delicate hand point to the practice of art as peculiarly adapted for a woman's occupation. He also urges, in the light of twenty years of experience as an art teacher, that "all schools of art should be mixed schools, and that the education given to both sexes should contemplate their having to live by the artistic labor of their own hands." Digressing from art education, he makes a strong plea for the opening of all colleges, and universities to women. He pays his respects to Mrs. Grundy's dark hints at the shocking things which sometimes happen when women take to studying art, anatomy, and other "fearful subjects", and urges that this kind of grundyism must be wiped out by proving or making all such studies so pure and morally harmless that the most refined woman can study them side by side with men, without any shock to her most delicate perceptions. On the question of woman's wages, he takes the high ground that the price paid for work should be determined by its value and not by the sex of the workman. The same work, performed in the same manner, and with equal skill, should be paid for at an equal rate.

—— ALL the normal schools established in this country, a few city institutions possibly excepted, have met one serious obstacle—the absence of an adequate demand for normal training. A teacher possessing sufficient scholarship to enter upon a course of professional training, has hitherto found little difficulty in obtaining employment. Indeed the value of professional training has not only been practically denied by the public, but, until quite recently, it has been questioned by many teachers—we might say by the great majority of persons filling the teacher's office. This state of things has compelled the

normal schools to receive students needing scholastic as well as professional training. In 1865 the writer visited a number of the oldest normal schools in the country, and was surprised to find that they were giving so little attention to professional training. The course of instruction in the schools visited, with perhaps two exceptions, was chiefly, and in several almost wholly, academic. But public sentiment is now undergoing a great and encouraging change. There is an increasing demand for trained teachers, and the value of professional instruction is now at least recognized by nearly all intelligent teachers. As a consequence the normal schools are making their courses more and more professional. Has not the time come when a true normal school of a high grade can be sustained in each of the older states which have assumed the duty of public education? Commissioner Harvey's able paper in this number and also Dr. Mayo's stirring appeal in our November issue are commended to all our readers.

—— While we have from the first discounted the claims of the extreme advocates of object lessons as a separate and distinct series of school exercises, we have constantly urged the value of object teaching, or, more definitely, of an objective method of teaching, and especially in primary schools. We have taught for years that the first lessons in reading, arithmetic, geography, music, etc., should begin with observation and sense knowledge and end with the abstract. The institute lectures which we gave nearly ten years ago, express substantially the principles we still hold and the methods we commend, though we trust that our views have become clearer and our practice better. We claim no special merit for this experience. It is shared by many teachers. The fact that object teaching has, here and there, been brought into disfavor by zealous teachers who understand neither its philosophy nor its function, makes an intelligent advocacy of the method specially important at the present time. Many teachers need to learn that the giving of an object lesson once a day will not suffice, if the old rote method is used in teaching the ordinary branches, and many more teachers need to learn how to make oral instruction a preparation for the study of text-books. However, we do not advise those who are trying to relieve the monotony of school routine by oral lessons on familiar objects, to cease their efforts. Even a poor object lesson, if given with spirit, would be a refreshing relief to the little children in many of our district schools. To those who wish to obtain clearer views on oral teaching, we commend Mr. Buckham's excellent paper in this number. It was prepared for the teachers of Buffalo, but will, we think, be of equal value and interest to teachers in other localities.

—— The Chinese government has sent forty boys to this country to be educated, and it is the intention to send as many more each year for several years to come—a very significant movement. At the request of the Chinese Commissioners in charge of the boys, Secretary Northrop, of Connecticut, secured homes for them in families in and near Springfield, Mass., and he has also drawn up directions for their care and instruction.

A METHOD OF TEACHING GEOGRAPHY.

It is now more than ten years since "The Geography Question" arrested the attention of American teachers. Its discussion has been very general, and important changes in the prevailing methods of geographical instruction have been presented. The most radical of the innovations advocated is the making of physical geography the basis of the whole science.

What is the practical result of this discussion? To what extent has it actually changed the instruction of the schools? We have taken some pains to obtain information on this point, and are assured that encouraging progress has been made in several directions. Increased attention is given to oral instruction; less time is wasted on unimportant details, and in memorizing the descriptive text; and, here and there, a teacher is making the facts and laws of physical geography the basis of his instruction. The discouraging fact is, that no one of these changes has as yet reached the majority of American schools. The great majority of our teachers are still "going through" the geographies in the old way.

One reason for this state of things is the very general impression that the adoption of more rational methods of teaching geography depends on the introduction of text-books embodying these methods. It is doubtless true that a suitable text-book is a valuable aid in teaching any branch of study, but no intelligent teacher need follow a wrong method because it is presented in the text-book used by his pupils, and especially is this true in teaching geography. The very highest success has been attained in connection with the least progressive text-books found in the schools of the country. Indeed all experience shows that a rational method of teaching geography is less dependent on a good text-book than is a poor method. The more stupid the method, the more essential is a good text-book.

But how can geography be successfully taught in connection with any of the series of geographies in current use? We will attempt to answer this question.

I. The Oral or Primary Course.

The first lessons in geography should develop those primary ideas and facts which are the foundation of all geographical knowledge. These include position, direction, distance, surface, the natural divisions of land and water, climate, the seasons, soils, productions, etc. They must be taught *orally*, by the actual observation of nature by the pupil, and hence every attempt to embody them in a text-book for the pupil to study, has and must fail. These oral lessons should begin with the school life of the child (they ought to begin earlier), and they should be continued until he is prepared for the intelligent study of text-books. The character of these lessons can only be indicated in this article.

The ideas of position, direction, and distance should be first developed, and, when the pupils are familiar with these ideas, the teacher should develop the idea of a map by drawing a map of the school-room. The ideas of direction and distance should be applied to the map, and familiarized by an appeal from the map to the real objects there represented. The map of the school-room

ould be followed by a map of the play-ground, with the adjacent streets, ts, etc.

The idea of surface should be next developed, and the terms smooth and ıgh, even and uneven, level and inclined, etc., should be objectively taught. he idea of a plane, hill, valley, stream of water, etc., should be carefully de-ıloped, and the terms familiarized. Meanwhile the pupils should be taught draw a map of the township, village, or city, locating the more important)jects. They should learn to describe in words the surface of the territory presented by this map.

They should next be led to observe the nature of the soil, and, as far as pos-ble, should be made familiar with the different kinds of soil, as sandy, clayey, amy, etc. Attention may next be given to the farm productions, the forest ees and fruit trees, the animals, domestic and wild, including birds, the cli-ate and seasons, the occupations of the people, etc.

In all of these lessons the teacher should be careful to tell the children)thing which they can be led to discover for themselves. They must be ught to *observe*, and then to express what they have learned. The teacher ıould not, however, limit his instruction to that which lies within the observa-on of his pupils. The little plane, valley, or hill in sight may be used to give ıem glimpses of those vast planes, valleys, and mountains which are found ı the earth's surface. Their knowledge of the climate and seasons of their wn neighborhood may be made clearer and more definite by lively sketches of ıe climates and seasons of lands in the torrid and frigid zones. Indeed early every fact learned by observation may be made a stepping-stone to)me kindred fact lying beyond the horizon of the children's senses. Thus ıey may be led from the seen to the unseen; from the known to the unknown.

When children have acquired a knowledge of their little world of home, ıey may next be taught the geography of their state. In the absence of a ıitable text-book, this instruction must also be imparted orally, and much of directly. If properly directed and encouraged, the children will "pick up" ıany facts of interest. Much information may be obtained from persons who ave visited or resided in the different sections of the state. Great pains must e taken to classify and systematize the knowledge acquired by the pupils. he map of the state should be drawn, first in outline, and then with the ıountains (if any), rivers, cities, etc., properly represented; and the pupils ıould have sufficient practice to enable them to do this with accuracy and ispatch.

We remark, in passing, that the first geographical text-book, placed in the ands of children, should be a geography of their own state and country, in-luding only the more interesting and important features of the latter. This ttle book should be made attractive and beautiful, and should be adapted, oth in matter and method, to the capacity of children. Such a work would e an admirable introduction to the ordinary geographies.

II. The Text-book Course.

The first lessons in nearly all geographical text-books are devoted to defini-ons. In teaching a definition, the true order is first to develop an idea of the

object defined, and then to teach the definition. When the terms defined have not been taught in the oral course, the committing of the definitions by the pupils must be preceded by such oral instruction as will give them clear mental pictures of the objects defined. All mathematical definitions should be omitted by beginners. Much time and effort may be wasted in an attempt to teach these definitions to young children. They should, of course, learn the names of the mathematical lines found on their maps, the names of the zones, etc., and, by means of a globe, or some substitute for it, they should be taught the shape and motions of the earth, and the distribution of land and water on its surface.

The definitions should be followed by a few lessons on the map of the world. If the school is not supplied with an outline map, one should be drawn on the the blackboard. If this is impracticable, an open atlas may be fastened to the wall! The essential thing is the placing of a map before the class when reciting. In these introductory map lessons, the pupils should not be required *to describe in words the location of the objects named.* They are not prepared to do this. The teacher should name the continents, oceans, zones, lines, etc., and the pupils should locate them with a pointer on the outline map, repeating the names. When they can do this readily, the teacher should ask *descriptive* questions, as, "What ocean north of Europe and Asia?" and the pupils should answer by giving the *names* of the objects described. The teacher may next give the names, and require the pupils to describe the location of the objects in words, but we think this step may be omitted in the first lessons on the hemisphere maps. The map exercises should be interspersed with much information "thrown in" by the teacher. Many interesting facts respecting the zones, oceans, continents, etc., may thus be given.

The next step is the study of the several grand divisions or continents, beginning with North America. How should the continents be studied? We answer as fully as space will permit.

Let the teacher place an outline map before the class, and, with a pointer and by questions, call attention to the form of the continent, its coast line, the surrounding oceans, and the adjacent islands; the great mountain systems, the river slopes, the plains, and other prominent surface features; the climate of the different zone sections, and the characteristic productions; the political divisions, etc. The object of this oral lesson is to interest the pupils in the continent and prepare them for the intelligent study of the map.

The first lesson on the map should be the drawing of the contour or coast-line of the continent, and the memorizing of the names of the oceans and seas and the larger gulfs and bays. The pupils should be shown how to draw the map, and the names to be memorized should be written on the board in their order, beginning say at the northeastern part of the map, thus:

Oceans and Seas.	*Gulfs and Bays.*
Atlantic Ocean,	Hudson Bay,
Carribean Sea,	Gulf of St. Lawrence,
Pacific Ocean,	Bay of Fundy,
Behring Sea,	Chesapeake Bay,
Arctic Ocean.	Gulf of Mexico,
	Gulf of California.

The first work of the pupils in the recitation is the drawing of the outline ıap (contour) on the blackboard. This being done, they should severally oint to and name the oceans and seas, and gulfs and bays, in their proper rder. One pupil should recite the oceans and seas, another the gulfs and ays, and this should be done rapidly, without any prompting and without the sking of questions by the teacher.

The next lesson should be the re-drawing of the coast line of the continent, nd the memorizing of the names of the peninsulas and a few of the more nportant capes, the names to be written on the blackboard and the lesson to e recited as above described. The succeeding lessons should be the larger djacent islands; the mountains, plateaus, and plains; the larger rivers (in ystems) and lakes; the political divisions and their capitals; the chief cities, tc. The places assigned for each lesson should be added by the pupils to heir maps, and thus each should learn to draw a complete map, neatly and ith dispatch. If for any reason the teacher omits map-drawing (it should ot be omitted), the lessons may be recited from an outline wall map. If the chool is not supplied with wall maps, the teacher should draw the successive ıaps on the blackboard, or, what is better, have some pupil do it. In every chool there can be found a pupil with such a taste for drawing that a little ncouragement will secure his assistance in the drawing of the needed maps. 'he essential thing, we repeat, is, that *the pupils have an outline map before hem when reciting*. In assigning lessons and during the recitations, the eacher should state ("throw in") interesting facts respecting the objects to e studied and recited.

When the pupils can point to and name all the places or objects on the map, 'hich have been assigned by the teacher, the lessons should be reviewed *without a map before the class during the recitation*. These reviews should consist of two series of lessons: 1. The teacher should ask *descriptive* questions, nd the pupils should answer by giving the *names* of the objects described. 2. 'he teacher should give the names of objects, and the pupils should answer by escribing their location. When the map has been thoroughly reviewed in ıis manner, the map questions in the text-book may be used for final review nd examination. The questions which relate to places not assigned by the eacher in the previous map drills, map be omitted by beginning classes. 'heir mastery will, however, give the pupils but little trouble.

When the map is mastered, the next step is the study of the descriptive text. *'he pupils should not be required to commit this text to memory*. In assign- ıg each lesson the teacher should "work up" the text orally, making free use f the pointer and outline map. Many interesting and important facts have lready been given in connection with the map lessons. These and other ıcts can be so grouped as to give the pupils a lively conception, a mental pic- ıre, of the features described in the text. Unless, for example, the pupil *sees* ıe great surface features of the continent, the text describing the same will e meaningless and without interest. Oral instruction must prepare the way ›r the intelligent study of the text. Hence oral and text book instruction hould be sandwiched, the former being made the preparation for the latter. f necessary, oral and text-book recitations may alternate, but usually the nec-

essary oral instruction may be given in connection with the assignment of the lesson. The pupils should recite first by answering questions proposed by the teacher, and then *by topics*. The productions should be taught in connection with climate.

We have thus imperfectly sketched a method of teaching geography, which, we believe, embodies the best experience of the country, and which can be successfully used in connection with any good series of geographies. Its use in ungraded schools enables the teacher to instruct pupils of quite unequal attainments in the same class—an important advantage. The oral course, possibly the last series of lessons excepted, may be given to all the younger pupils, including those reading in the primer, first reader, and second reader. A little manual containing a syllabus of the oral lessons, and also the map exercises, properly arranged, has greatly assisted many teachers.

THE CLOSE OF THE VOLUME.

This number closes the second volume of the NATIONAL TEACHER. Including the index and several pages not numbered, the volume contains *five hundred* pages of reading matter—an average of nearly *forty-two* pages to each number. It is believed that the volume, notwithstanding the adverse circumstances under which several numbers were edited, will compare favorably with the previous one in practical value, as well as in the favor with which it has been received by all classes of teachers. A glance at the table of contents, found in this number, will show that nearly all the more important educational questions of the day have received attention, while much space has been devoted to the practical elucidation of methods of teaching and school management. We point to the two volumes of the TEACHER, now published, as proof that great pains is taken to secure for its pages the most advanced views and the ripest experience of the country in school instruction and management.

The next volume, beginning with the January number, 1873, will be printed from new type, and other improvements may be expected. We shall endeavor to make the NATIONAL TEACHER not only "the best", but the neatest educational journal in the country. Increased attention will be given to the teaching of the natural sciences, especially in common schools, and to methods of teaching all the elementary branches. As an earnest of what may be expected in this direction, we refer to the present issue. We shall aim to meet more and more fully the professional needs of progressive teachers. More space will be devoted to "Educational Intelligence", and the items presented will continue to be expressed as concisely as possible. By a free use of our exchanges, it would be easy to fill many pages each month with school information, but, by careful gleaning and condensation, we try to relieve our readers of the necessity of culling a mass of verbiage for important facts.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

—— Does *your subscription to the* National Teacher *close with this number? If so, please renew, remitting* **$1.50** *in a letter at our risk. Remit larger sums by postal order or draft. Our books for* **1873** *are open for names.*

—— We will send the first six numbers of the current volume of the Teacher—from January to June, 1872, inclusive—to any address, postpaid, on receipt of *fifty cents.* We make this offer because we have a few extra sets of these numbers on hand.

—— The president of Columbia College receives $8,000 a year; the professors $6,000 each. These salaries are the largest paid by any college in the country. The property owned by this institution amounts to $3,500,000, and yields an income of nearly $200,000.

—— A new and very elegant building for a high school has just been finished in New Haven, Conn., at an expense of $100,000, exclusive of the land. The building is of Philadelphia pressed brick, with Ohio yellow-stone trimmings, and is furnished throughout with every modern convenience.

—— Supt. J. H. Binford, of Richmond, Va., has sent us the names of **seventy-three** of his teachers as subscribers to The National Teacher—the largest number of subscribers yet received from any city in the country. This fact is highly complimentary to the Richmond teachers and their able and live superintendent. The cities standing next on our subscription book, are Chicago, which gives the Teacher 48 subscribers; Wheeling, W. Va., 45; Phillipsburg, N. J., 24; and Atlanta, Ga., 18.

—— It seems that we were in error last month in announcing, on the authority of several of our exchanges, that Secretary Northrop, of Connecticut, has formally accepted the invitation to go to Japan as commissioner of education. He has only expressed a readiness to accept when the full time comes for the inauguration of the work, but wishes the Japanese government to be free meanwhile to select another person should it desire to do so—which is not at all probable notwithstanding the failure of the American commissioners imposed upon Japan by Washington politicians. Minister Mori has placed the female students from Japan in charge of Mr. Northrop, who has placed them in the families of Dr. Leonard Bacon, and Mr. Abbot, the historian—both residents of New Haven.

—— Hon. A. S. Kissell, ex-superintendent of public instruction, Iowa, has opened a school for the training of teachers at Des Moines.——Chas. S. Royce, of Ohio, for several years past a teacher of physical culture in Boston, is one of the proprietors of the Butler Health Exercise and Lifting Cure, Philadelphia. ——J. K. Pickett, formerly of Ohio, has taken charge of the new seminary at Foxburg, Pa.——Rev. J. F. Reinmund, of Tiffin, Ohio, formerly superintendent of the schools of Lancaster and Springfield, Ohio, has removed to Leba-

non, Pa., to take charge of a church.——D. P. Pratt, of Ohio, last year in the New York Institution for the Blind, Batavia, has taken charge of the public schools of Vandalia, Ill.——Walter S. Smith, of Battle Ground, Ind., takes charge of the Seventh District School, Indianapolis.——Prof. G. S. Hall, a graduate of Williams College, succeeds Prof. Hosmer at Antioch College. ——E. L. Cox, for several years principal of Beverly Academy, Ohio, is superintendent of the schools of Newburgh, Ind. C. R. Long is his successor at Beverly.——Prof. G. B. Perry, last year appointed to the chair of natural science in Oberlin College, died Oct. 3d, at his home in Cambridge, Mass.

OUR OHIO CIRCULATION.—We name below the cities and other graded school districts in Ohio in which the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, the Ohio edition of the NATIONAL TEACHER, has *five* or more subscribers, including those whose subscriptions expired with the September number, but not including those to begin January, 1873. In some instances the number of subscribers given includes teachers not employed in the graded schools (all subscribers being counted), and in several instances *all* the teachers in the graded schools are subscribers and are included:

Akron, 35; Athens, 12; Alliance, 13; Ashland, 8; Ada, 8; Bellefontaine, 10; Bucyrus; 11; Bethel, 6; Barnesville, 9; Cincinnati, 149; Cleveland, 81; Columbus, 45; Canton, 23; Crestline, 9; Covington, 6; Clyde, 5; Caldwell, 8; Cambridge, 12; Canal Winchester, 5; Chillicothe, 11; Canal Fulton, 7; Carroll, 6; Chippewa, 7; Cheviot, 5; Camden, 5; Cadiz, 5; Dayton, 55; Delaware, 17; Defiance, 5; Delphos, 6; Dresden, 6; East Liverpool, 6; Elyria, 6; Eaton, 9; Fostoria, 8; Fremont, 13; Galion, 9; Gallipolis, 15; Greenville, 6; Georgetown, 15; Harrisburg, 8; Hope, 8; Ironton, 8; Jackson C. H., 7; Kenton, 21; London, 12; Lancaster, 16; Logan, 19; Lebanon, 9; Lima, 19; Louisville, 5; Marion, 34; Mansfield, 27; Mt. Vernon, 6; Marysville, 10; Massillon, 22; Milan, 5; McConnelsville, 5; Middlebury, 10; Marietta, 18; Marseilles, 8; Martin's Ferry, 5; Navarre, 7; New Lisbon, 11; Newark, 12; Norwalk, 9; Napoleon, 14; Oberlin, 15; Portsmouth, 21; Putnam, 7; Piqua, 11; Pomeroy, 7; Pataskala, 6; Raymond, 5; Ripley, 5; Russellville, 5; Ravenna, 7; Richwood, 6; Reynoldsburg, 6; Steubenville, 23; Sidney, 23; Salem, 21; Springfield, 25; South Charleston, 6; St. Clairsville, 7; Tiffin, 12; Toledo, 38 (36, Oct., 1871); Tippecanoe City, 7; Upper Sandusky, 22; Urbana, 23; Versailles, 5; Washington C. H., 9; Washington, 7; Winchester, 5; Wooster, 8; Warren, 10; Worthington, 1 Westerville, 25; Waverly, 6; Wilmington, 10; Xenia, 20; Youngstown, 14; Zanesville, 16.

OHIO.—The National Normal School, at Lebanon, opened the fall term with 250 students, and in November reported 360.——The North-Western Normal School, at Ada, had enrolled 171 students October 18th, with prospects of a very successful year.——The North-Western Normal School, at Republic, opened the fall term with 150 pupils and "more coming in." The number of different pupils enrolled last year was 363. (We do not know how many of the students in these normal schools are making special preparation for teaching.)——The attendance of the Ohio Central Normal School is double that of last year.——We have no information respecting the prosperity of the McNeely Normal School, at Hopedale.——The Western Reserve Normal School, at Milan, ably conducted by Miss Delia Palmer, is steadily growing in popularity and usefulness.——The Orwell Normal Institute is in a very flourishing

condition.——H. N. Carver, for several years past a teacher of languages in the National Normal School, has opened a normal school at Medina.—— The Inland Normal School, at Greensburg, is conducted by J. A. Williams, and G. F. Burkett.——The above normal schools are all private institutions.

CALIFORNIA.—The New School Law, which goes into effect next January, presents several excellent features. Only holders of first-grade certificates are eligible to the office of County Superintendent; in counties containing as many as 2,000 people, the Superintendent must give all his time to the oversight of his schools. Where practicable, school-grounds must be ornamented with trees and shrubbery. Good.—*Chicago Schoolmaster.*

KENTUCKY.—During the past summer twelve Institutes have been held in the State under the general direction of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. A. M. Henderson. In the work of each Institute Dr. Henderson has been assisted by Prof. P. A. Towne, of Paris, Ky., and by such local force as was available. These Institutes have been denominated "congressional" because each represented, at least theoretically, all the counties in a given congressional district of the State. In some large districts two Institutes have been held. The object of these Institutes has been to secure the permanent establishment of a strong organization for each county in the State. This effected, the Congressional Teachers' Institute will no longer be needed. * * Dr. Henderson has ably advocated the establishment of at least one great Normal School for the State, and that such a school as will do honor to our powerful commonwealth will result from his efforts there can be no question. —*Home and School.*

JAPAN.—In a recent address in New Haven, Hon. B. G. Northrop took occasion to correct the late sensational telegrams respecting the condition of affairs in Japan. He stated that not a movement had yet been made against the Mikado who is still enthroned secure. The feudal system of the Daimios of about nine hundred years growth had been broken by a peaceful revolution. In their parliament they volunteered, with wonderful unanimity, to surrender their titles, honors, and even estates, to the imperial government. There are doubtless serious hindrances to the new movement in Japan—not the least of which is financial embarrassment—and we must expect delays. He stated that his own relation to the Japanese government is undisturbed. He urged Americans, friendly to Japanese progress, to appeal to Congress to admit the six Japanese students to West Point, to urge the payment of the indemnity fund of over half a million, due in equity, which the Japanese government promises "shall be sacredly consecrated to national education."

ENGLAND.—The administration of the new school system, if it can be called a system, is beset with serious difficulties. It was nearly blocked at first by the religious question. The established church seized the opportunity to strengthen itself by the establishment of schools under its supervision, and this aroused the opposition of the other denominations. There has also been much contention between those who favor a purely secular education, and the

advocates of a clerical system. A new difficulty has arisen from the recent attempt to carry into effect the compulsory provision of the law. This touched the spirit of caste, which is so strong in England, and caused an explosion. Thirty outcast children, sent to a school in the north of London by the officers of the law, were refused admission by the local managers of the school, on the ground that they would bring moral if not physical contagion. This has shown the necessity of providing separate schools for the lowest class of children to be forced into the schools by compulsion, and this is not easily done. It brings the school board into conflict with the system of poor-law relief, and raises many other difficult questions. Indeed it now looks as though the compulsory feature of the law will fail. Meanwhile the old opposition to the education of the poor is manifesting itself in the expression of the stereotyped English twaddle about the danger of spoiling the laboring class by education, making them discontented with their lot, etc. We fear that the success of public education is not assured by the new English law.——Since writing the above, we have learned that the London School Board, which began its operations two years ago, has expended £40,000, and that of this sum only £15 16s. 7d. have been laid out in reference to schools—the rest having been spent in salaries, printing, advertising, etc. The *College Courant* adds that "this state of things excites great indignation. Several of the members of the board have resigned in disgust, and the others continually quarrel among themselves." We are sorry to be obliged to make a record of these facts.

SAXONY.—A novel and most interesting experiment in the field of elementary instruction has just been resolved upon in Saxony. Hitherto, as everywhere else, so in that small but highly developed kingdom, the youth of the lower orders, upon being apprenticed to a trade, have been left at liberty to forget the little they have learned at school. Attendance at Sunday schools and evening instruction provided by the State and charitable societies, was perfectly optional. By a law just passed this liberty is abridged, and compulsory attendance at evening schools exacted for a period of three years. This is the first time, if we are not mistaken, in the annals of the world, that an attempt has been made by a State to extend the education of the humblest classes beyond the merest rudiments, and after they had entered upon the business of life. Saxony, already the best taught portion of Germany, will by the new law be more than ever in advance of her sister States.—*Ed'l Reporter.*

—— THE January Circular of the National Bureau of Education enumerates one hundred and one universities in Europe, including thirty-four "faculties" of law, medicine, etc., in France. One hundred and thirty of these universities were founded before the eighteenth century. Many of the institutions enumerated as universities are such only in name. They differ from the true university in their whole arrangement and character. Germany is credited with twenty-one universities, Italy with nineteen, Spain with eleven, England with only six, and Switzerland with five.

BOOK NOTICES.

ART EDUCATION, SCHOLASTIC AND INDUSTRIAL. By WALTER SMITH, Professor of Art Education in the city of Boston Normal School of Art, and State Director of Art Education, Massachusetts. With illustrations. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1872.

This is an elegant volume of four hundred and ten pages, 8 vo., not including forty pages of fine illustrations. The opening chapter gives a general review of art education, and the succeeding eleven chapters treat respectively of art teaching in public schools; schools of art and industrial drawing; methods of industrial art study—French, English and German; the conduct and management of schools of art; ornamental design in form and color; surface decoration; relief ornaments—modeling and carving; casting and casts; architectural enrichments; symbolism in art and architecture; and prospect and retrospect. The first five chapters give the results of the author's wide experience and observation in schools of art and art teaching, and the succeeding chapters consider the more general question of industrial art education. The appendix contains lists of flat examples, models, and books; casts of figure, ornaments, and from nature; examination papers; and programmes of schools of art. The above general outline of the contents of this work gives some idea of its comprehensive character, but it fails to indicate the practical value of the information presented. In the presentation of plans and methods, the author has kept in mind the circumstances and wants of this country. Instead of reproducing either of the European systems, he has made each contribute its excellences to the new system, which is to be American. We heartily commend the work to all interested in art education.

THE INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR, METHODICALLY ARRANGED. By GOOLD BROWN. A New Edition, with Exercises in Analysis and Parsing. By HENRY KIDDLE, A. M., Superintendent of Common Schools New York City. New York: William Wood & Co. 1872.

THE FIRST LINES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By GOOLD BROWN. A New Edition, with Exercises in Analysis and Parsing. By HENRY KIDDLE, A. M. New York: William Wood & Co. 1872.

Goold Brown has long been the favorite author of a considerable number of grammarians, and his text-books, last revised by him as early as 1855, and first published years before, still have an undiminished sale. The demand for the addition of analysis to the author's system of grammar, induced the publishers to issue a new edition, prepared by Superintendent Kiddle, of New York. This new edition has recently been revised, and now contains "an entirely new series of exercises and examples, both for analysis and parsing, with observations and references to make them correspond with the body of the work." Analysis is first introduced immediately after the treatment of the noun, and from this point etymology and analysis are united—the true idea, we think, but in teaching we should make analysis precede etymology in the presentation of each part of speech. This new edition is what the publishers claim for it, "Brown's Grammar Improved."

A MANUAL OF ANCIENT HISTORY. By M. E. THALHEIMER, formerly Teacher of History and Composition in the Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This work has been received with very great favor. The most critical reviewers have found its excellences so noticeable and important that they have felt constrained to commend rather than criticise. The selection and arrangement of matter, the style of narration, and the mechanical execution, including maps and illus-

trations, are each superior, even admirable, but that which renders the work specially worthy of commendation is its historical accuracy. Recent investigations and discoveries have shown that not a little of what has been accepted as ancient history, is fable. With the aid of such investigators as Niebuhr, Bunsen, Arnold, Mommsen, and Rawlinson, the author has attempted to ascertain the limits of fact and romance, and to place within reach of American students what is credible in the history of the ancient world. The work presents the history of the Asiatic and African nations, of the Persian Empire, of the Grecian States and Colonies, of the Macedonian Empire, and of Rome from the earliest times to the fall of the Western Empire. The maps, recapitulations, and reviews are valuable text-book features. The volume contains three hundred and seventy six pages, 8 vo.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN ITS ELEMENTS AND FORMS. With a History of its Origin and Development, Abridged from the Octavo Edition. For Schools and Families. By WILLIAM CHAUNCEY FOWLER, LL.D., Late Professor of Rhetoric in Amherst College; Author of a series of English Grammars, etc. To which is added Professor March's Method of Philological Study of the English Language. New York: Harper & Brothers.

In Part I, the author gives a definition of language and discusses its origin, growth, original unity, and courses of diversity. The classification of languages adopted as practically convenient, is founded partly on ethnological and partly on linguistic principles. The English language is traced to its components, the Celtic, the Latin, the Greek, the Anglo-Saxon, the Danish, and the Anglo-Norman. The author in tracing the progress of the language gives specimens of Anglo-Saxon, Semi-Saxon, Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.

Dialects and provincialisms receive their due share of attention.

In Part II, the author discusses the phonetic elements, giving satisfactory classifications, analysis, rules and exercises. Part III is devoted to a consideration of the relations of Orthography to Orthoepy. It treats of the letters as representatives of sound, and points out the irregularities of orthography. Part IV contains a discussion of Etymology. The usual classification of the parts of speech is given, but an unusual amount of space is very properly given to the subject of *derivation*. Part V, containing a discussion of the logical forms in the octavo edition, is omitted in this abridgment. Part VI, embracing Syntax, contains a full and satisfactory treatment of that subject. Part VII gives the Rhetorical forms in the language. Part VIII treats of Prosody. An article on punctuation follows, containing the necessary rules, exceptions and illustrations. The Appendix, giving a method of philological study of the English language, will be useful to those who wish to study the English classics critically.

The book is not adapted to elementary classes, but, as will be seen from the above outline, is rich in matter. Teachers of grammar would be greatly profited by keeping this work at hand and consulting it freely. By advanced classes in high schools and colleges, the book could be used with great advantage. A. S.

GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS: or, the Construction and Solution of Various Geometrical Problems, from Analysis by Geometry, Algebra and the Differential Calculus; the Geometrical Construction of Algebraic Equations and a Mode of Constructing Curves of the Higher Orders by means of Points. By BENJAMIN HALLOWELL, formerly Proprietor and Principal of the Alexandria, Va., Boarding School. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

In the opinion of the author, the Algebraic method of Descartes, though most efficient in the hands of the accomplished mathematician, is not so well adapted as the Geometric method to impart a knowledge of mathematical principles, or to inspire the student with a love for mathematical science.

We agree with the author in this view which may be justified by historical considerations.

Long before the Algebraic method was known, the Geometric method was brought well nigh to perfection, and the order in which these methods have been developed by the race, is, beyond all question, the order in which they should be pursued by the individual.

This view is verified by experience, which teaches us that the student, at first, needs the assistance of the diagram, and that he should have continued exercise in this method, even after beginning the Analytic, thus making the transition from one to the other gradual, till, at length, he has acquired sufficient skill and strength of mind to wield with pleasure and success that most efficient method of investigation, the Higher Mathematical Analysis.

The book will render the teacher most efficient service in furnishing appropriate exercises for the student throughout his course.

In discussing a problem the author adopts the following plan, which we believe to be the true order: "The analysis of the problem, the construction, the demonstration, the calculation and the limits."

We heartily commend this book to teachers of Mathematics, and advise its daily use in all classes from Geometry upwards, and thank the author for giving to the world the choice fruit gathered through a long and useful life.

A. S.

FIRST LESSONS IN NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. For Beginners. By JOSEPH C. MARTINDALE, M.D. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

Among the many books on elementary science, which the writer has examined within a few years, none have been met with containing so little that is desirable as this. Following the method of "questions and answers" by which the teacher is allowed to do nothing and the pupil still less, the author has attempted the discussion of Astronomy, Light, Heat, The Air, Water, Sound, Matter, Attraction, Motion, the Mechanical Powers and Electricity. It would be easy to show by quotations from the first three or four pages that the publishers might have spared themselves the expense of its issue without proving themselves in any way unfaithful to the true interests of science and sound instruction therein. They (the publishers) have, however, done their part in giving the book a neat and attractive oppearance.

T. C. M.

THE FOURTH READER. By LEWIS B. MONROE, Professor of Vocal Culture and Elocution in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co. 1872.

This reader is characterized by the same excellences as the two higher books of the series, noticed in our July issue. The selections not only possess great literary merit, but they are admirably adapted to the cultivation of a natural and expressive style of reading. Most of the pieces require a lively, conversational expression—the very style of reading which children should acquire. Part I is devoted to the elementary sounds, the formation of which is indicated by figures and diagrams, showing the positions of the organs of speech required for each. The illnstrations and exercises used are based on the system devised by Prof. Bell, of London. We are surprised to find on page 17 the statement that the pronunciation of *u* in mute, tune, etc., is "identical with that of the pronoun *you*." The pronunciation of "you" begins with the sound of *y*, while the diphthong *u* does not. Was the usually accurate author misled by the word "use"?

—— THE HERALD OF HEALTH treats of hygienic, social, and educational topics with vigor and freshness. The November number contains contributions of interest and value on "Workshops", "Inebriate Asylums", "Hints to People going South", "Perfection of Character", "A Dialogue between Franklin and the Gout", being the eleventh in the series of "Health Lessons by Old Writers", and other shorter articles. Published by Wood & Holbrook, New York, at $1.25 a year.

—— MESSRS. E. H. BUTLER & Co. now publish a *political* edition of Mitchell's New Outline Maps, for which there is a greater demand than for the political and physical series which we have so strongly commended for their beauty, accuracy, and cheapness. The small series is specially adapted to country schools.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE DRAWING BOOK of Standard Reproductions and Original Designs, Parts I and II. By Walter Smith. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. Price $5.00 each.

THE LAWRENCE SPEAKER. By Philip Lawrence. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. Price $2.00.

MARJORIE'S QUEST. By Jeanie T. Gould. Illustrated. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. Price $1.50.

THE PENNSYLVANIA PILGRIM, and Other Poems. By John Greenleaf Whittier. Illustrated. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

MANUAL FOR TEACHERS. By Dr. Ad. Douai. New York: E. Steiger.

A. DOUAI'S SERIES OF RATIONAL READERS: I. The Rational Phonetic Primer. II. The Rational First Reader. New York: E. Steiger.

MR. BLAKE'S WALKING-STICK: A Christmas Story for Boys and Girls. By Edward Eggleston. Chicago: Adams, Blackmer & Lyon Publishing Co. Price 50 cts.

MARTINDALE'S FIRST LESSONS IN NATURAL PHILOSOHPY. By Joseph C. Martindale, M.D. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother, Price 60 cts.

BIBLE GEMS, or Manual of Scripture Lessons. By R. E. Kremer. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. Price $1.00.

FELTER'S NEW PRACTICAL ARITHMETIC. By Selim H. Peabody, A.M. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. Price $1.00.

A COURSE OF FREE-HAND, MODEL, AND OBJECT DRAWING. By Prof. Walter Smith. Boston: Noyes, Holmes & Co.

THE AMERICAN DRAWING CARDS. First Series and Second Series. By Prof. Walter Smith. Boston: Noyes, Holmes & Co.

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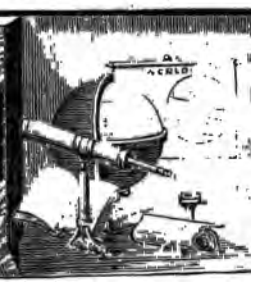

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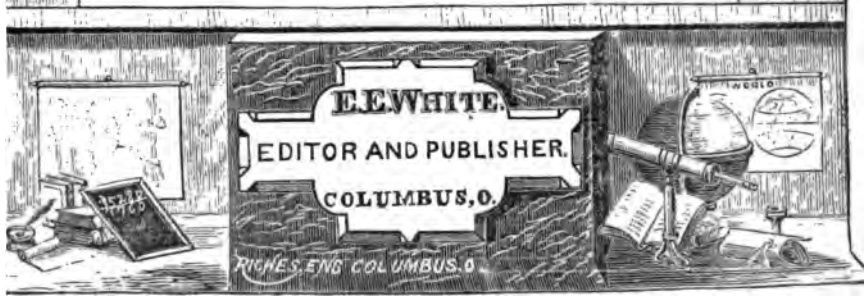

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Vol. I. *AUGUST, 1872.* —*No. 8.*

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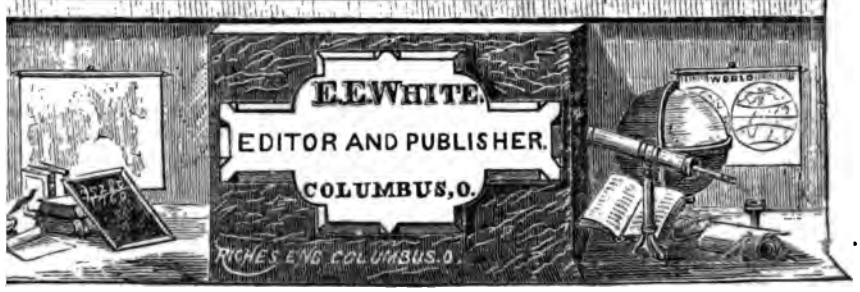

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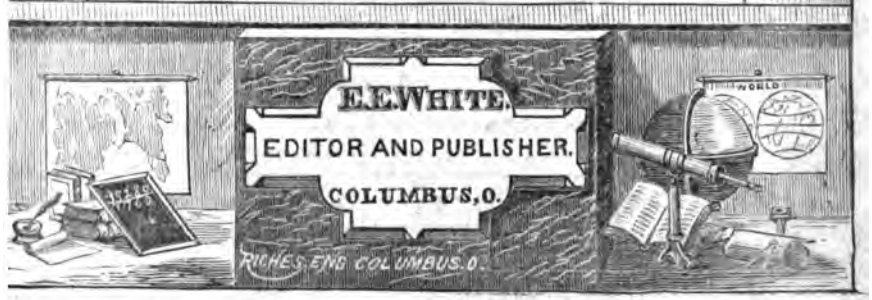

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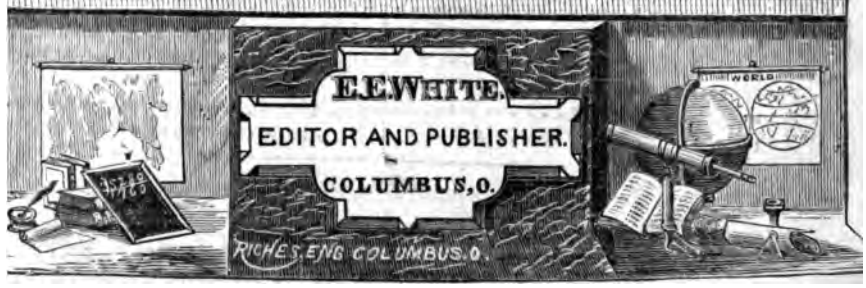

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